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ABSTRACT

This monograph explores and discusses issues related to student-athletes with emphasis on entering student-athletes, and on development of programs to facilitate positive relationships between student-athletes and their universities. Following an introduction by the editor, the included chapters are: (1) "An Interview with Mike McGee" (Betsy O. Barefoot); (2) "Counseling the Collegiate Student-Athlete: History, Problems, and Possible Innovations" (Tim Fields); (3) "Self-Efficacy: A Tool for Providing Effective Support Services for Student-Athletes" (Jutta Street); (4) "Essential Components for Successful Collaboration between Coaches and Athletic Academic Advisors" (Pam Wuestenberg); (5) "Student-Athlete Welfare or 'Welfare'?" (Daniel Boggan, Jr.); (6) "NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program: Results of the Help-Seeking Survey Research Project" (Meg Murray); (7) "History of the NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program" (Emily Ward); (8) "The Impact of NCAA Propositions 48 and 16 on the Academic Preparation and Graduation Rates of Student-Athletes" (Jerry L. Kingston); (9) "Community/Junior College Transfer Student-Athletes: Ethics, Integrity, and the Second First-Year Experience" (Karl Mooney); (10) "The First-Year Female Student-Athlete: Characteristics and Interventions" (Carol A. Gruber); and (11) "Race and College Sports: A Long Way To Go" (Richard E. Lapchick). (Individual chapters contain references.) (DB)

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Monograph Series
Number 27

GAINING THE COMPETITIVE EDGE:

ENRICHING THE COLLEGIATE EXPERIENCE OF THE NEW STUDENT-ATHLETE

EDITED BY STEPHEN ROBINSON

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The First-Year Experience & Students in Transition
The University of South Carolina, 1999

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Additional copies of this monograph may be ordered at $30 each from the National Resource Center for The First-Year Experience and Students in Transition, University of South Carolina, 1728 College Street, SC 29208. Telephone (803) 777-6029. Telefax (803) 777-4699.

Special gratitude is expressed to Blair Symes, Daniel Turner, and Corinna McLeod, Assistant Editors, for editing, design, and layout of this monograph; and to Dr. Betsy Barefoot, Co-Director for Research and Publications.

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PREFACE

John N. Gardner

Thirty-eight years ago in the fall of 1961, I had two very different first-year experiences: one, an academic experience in a small liberal arts college on the banks of the Ohio River; and the second, as a student-athlete in an intercollegiate varsity sport, literally on the Ohio River. My sport was crew, hardly representative of some of the more high-profile revenue-producing sports in contemporary American NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association) Division I schools. It drew few fans and generated fewer dollars for the university. Although my experience might not be analogous to that of today's first-year student-athletes playing sports that fall under intense media scrutiny, it did give me empathy for the unique difficulties student-athletes must face. Along with normal academic demands, college athletes must also respond directly to the demands of the coaching staff and indirectly to the expectations of zealous spectators and supporters. Student-athletes can feel as if their lives are constantly being placed under a microscope, and all too often that attention and pressure can lead athletes into privileging sports over coursework. Academics can also naturally suffer from the physical demands of all-day training schedules that rob student-athletes of the energy necessary to complete their classroom assignments effectively. I learned long ago in my first-year experience that as a future educator I could not be truly concerned and committed to improving the first college year and without being concerned about the freshman athlete.

I can think of no other type of college student who makes greater sacrifices for the popular national reputation of his or her college or university than the student-athlete. These students sometimes enter the collegiate environment with the least preparation, yet with the greatest imposed demands for self-discipline, stamina, energy, stress management, self control, goal setting, time management, and academic performance. As if the generic challenges of the first-year experience common to all new students were not enough, how much more daunting it is to be, in addition, a student-athlete. Given the enormous importance our society places upon athletics, and given athletics tendency to reflect our culture's best and worst values and aspirations (from camaraderie and cooperation to commercialism and chauvinism), some attention from our Center towards the first-year athletic experience is an important component of our work.

This monograph grew out of a national forum we hosted in 1994 on the topic of the first-year student-athlete. We could not have hosted that event without the active leadership and support of the University of South Carolina Department of Athletics. At that time, a relatively new athletics director, Dr. Mike McGee, who is interviewed in the first chapter of this monograph, had recently come to the University of South Carolina. With Dr. McGee's cooperation and co-sponsorship we were able to convene educators who work with student-athletes to share ideas for helping these special students. It struck me that this subject really needed to be the focus of an enduring print product, and in that forum the genesis for this monograph was born.

It is a real pleasure for me to present this 27th installment of our monograph series to our readership and also to express appreciation to our two main editors of this project, Dr. Stephen Robinson of the University of Nebraska at Kearney and Dr. Betsy Barefoot of our National Center. It is my hope that this monograph will produce a number of valuable insights for our readers on how to be more effective counselors and educators of collegiate student-athletes. It is also my hope that this monograph will dispel some of the myths that surround the nature of the student-athletic experience. Personally I believe we have a moral obligation to try to serve these students better in return for the enormous sacrifices they make to promote our institutions.

INTRODUCTION

Stephen Robinson

Often the most publicly visible part of a university is its athletics program. Although athletics programs can often be beneficial for students as well as the university, there are times when they can serve as a distraction from the primary purpose of an academic institution. While athletics can sometimes take away from a university's principal mission, the pressures of participating in collegiate sports can also cause distractions to the successful development of the individual student-athlete off the playing field. Many times student-athletes are challenged with having to juggle what is an intense athletic training and participation schedule with the rigors of an academic experience—a situation that can lead to devastating outcomes, both in the classroom and in their personal lives. Because the institutional and personal issues related to intercollegiate athletic participation are unique, we have devoted a monograph to addressing the pressures and experiences particular to collegiate student-athletes.

The central aim of this monograph is to explore and discuss issues related to student-athletes and to assist in programmatic developments that will have a positive impact on the relationship between student-athletes and their universities. The target audience for this monograph includes university administrators, faculty, students, and other leaders within the university community, such as alumni and foundation officials. The chapters included have been contributed by a number of key educators and advisors who provide discussion and insight into a range of topics relevant to the intellectual and social development of college student-athletes.

Chapter 1 presents a provocative interview with University of South Carolina Athletics Director Mike McGee that was conducted on January 28, 1999 by Betsy Barefoot, Co-Director for Research and Publications at the National Resource Center for The First-Year Experience and Students in Transition. The interview presents the perspectives of an experienced collegiate coach and athletics director concerning the role of today's student-athlete within the university community. Barefoot raises a number of probing questions on topics ranging from the level of pressure on student-athletes to succeed academically and athletically, to the effects of National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) regulations on recruitment and retention of collegiate athletes, to the negative effects of stereotypes placed on student-athletes. McGee's straightforward and genuine responses provide an excellent introduction to many of the issues and concerns that are examined further by the chapter authors.

In Chapter 2, Tim Fields, Licensed Professional Counselor at Louisiana State University, offers a discussion of considerations essential for successful counseling of student-athletes. Fields has been working with student-athletes for several years, helping them to address personal issues. This chapter will prove very useful for counseling practitioners and/or advisors who aid student-athletes in their personal development and help them to deal with a variety of pressures that they must face in college.

Fields proposes a holistic approach to addressing the needs of college student-athletes in an effort to engage and retain these young people.

The third chapter presents Jutta Street's discussion of the self-efficacy of student-athletes. Street maintains that collegiate athletes face challenges and barriers that are qualitatively different than their nonathletic peers. She argues that self-efficacy, a key component of social cognitive theory, provides an excellent framework for understanding the issues and concerns faced by student-athletes.

Chapter 4 contains useful information on collaboration between coaches and athletic-academic advisors. Although most university staff members involved in the life of the student-athlete genuinely strive for successful academic outcomes, they do not always agree on how to achieve these goals while promoting a high level of athletic performance. Pam Wuestenberg makes use of her years of personal experience as a collegiate coach to provide insight concerning the development of a successful collaboration model between academic advisors and coaches. She proposes strategies for ensuring the teamwork necessary to help the student-athlete achieve his or her academic goals.

In Chapter 5, Daniel Boggan Jr., NCAA Chief Operating Officer, provides a discussion of intercollegiate athletic associations and institutional commitments to the welfare of student-athletes. Boggan asserts that all persons engaged in college athletics should focus on the educational development of student-athletes in order to help them become contributing members of the university community and of society in general. He argues for a new approach to student-athletes that allows for more balance between academics and athletics.

Emily Ward and Meg Murray examine the impact of the NCAA Champs/Life Skills Program in the two following chapters. Their discussion of the origins and purpose of this program will provide readers a good understanding of an effort undertaken by the NCAA to address both the academic and personal development of student-athletes. In addition, this chapter includes a discussion of the results of the Help-Seeking Survey research project, endorsed by the NCAA to help validate the need for the Life Skills Program.

In Chapter 8, Jerry Kingston offers an in-depth discussion of the impact of Propositions 48 and 16 on the academic preparation and the graduation rates of student-athletes. Kingston served as the chair of the NCAA Academic Requirements Committee (ARC) from 1992 until 1996, when these new initial eligibility standards were being debated and implemented. This chapter discusses the academic eligibility standards, the research program designed to measure their impact, the analytical basis for the implementation of Proposition 16, and a comparison of predicted versus actual impacts of Proposition 48 for the purpose of assessing the likely impact of Proposition 16. This chapter is a must read for university officials involved in the discussion of these two propositions.

Transfer student-athletes—or the second first-year experience—is the topic addressed by Karl Mooney in Chapter 9. He argues that collegiate athletics programs are often targeted for misusing the community or junior college system. Mooney presents an in-depth understanding of transfer student-athletes as well as the issues of transition that these young people face. This information will be extremely valuable for persons associated with athletics programs that involve student-athletes who have either transferred or who are preparing to transfer to a four-year institution.

In Chapter 10, Carol Gruber focuses on the first-year college female student-athlete. This chapter provides professionals with the knowledge and tools to assist female student-athletes in achieving developmental goals, beginning with their initial year of college. Gruber contends that special consideration should be paid to female student-athletes since they often must confront a set of pressures different than those faced by their male counterparts.

The final chapter addresses the issue of race and college athletics. Drawing on years of research and a deep understanding of the topic, Richard Lapchick provides a chapter that will help all interested parties better understand the

experience of a Black student-athlete on a predominantly White campus as well as the harmful effects of stereotypes placed on Black student-athletes. Other issues addressed include positional segregation in college, interracial dating and sexual stereotypes, and the options Black athletes have in choosing a college. This information is very timely and should be read by all persons interested in the well-being of student-athletes in general and of Black student-athletes in particular.

Each of these chapters concerns itself with issues central to the experience of today's college student-athlete. While there are areas left for future exploration, this monograph provides a broad discussion of several pertinent issues affecting the student-athlete population. The chapters discuss a range of possibilities in understanding the issues and provide useful suggestions related to programmatic changes or implementation.

It is hoped that through the publication of this monograph university personnel will better understand issues related to the student-athlete population. It is also hoped that the discussion contained herein will spark an interest in conducting research on areas that affect or are affected by student-athletes. Given the importance of maintaining our intercollegiate athletics programs as integral parts of the academic mission of the institution and of the commitment to the overall development of student-athletes, the information provided in these chapters provides an excellent source of insightful ideas and pragmatic solutions.

CHAPTER 1

AN INTERVIEW WITH MIKE MCGEE

Betsy O. Barefoot

On January 28, 1999, Betsy Barefoot, Co-Director for Research and Publications with the National Resource Center for The First-Year Experience and Students in Transition, conducted the following interview with University of South Carolina (USC) Athletics Director Mike McGee. Before coming to the University of South Carolina in 1993, Dr. McGee served as the head football coach at Duke University and East Carolina University, as an assistant coach at the Universities of Minnesota and Wisconsin, and as athletics director at the University of Cincinnati and the University of Southern California. He received his Ph.D. in Higher Education/Business Administration from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill in 1982.

Betsy Barefoot: Is the pressure on student-athletes to succeed both academically and athletically too great for today's student-athletes, and how have conditions changed since your years as a student-athlete and as a coach?

Mike McGee: There is no question that actions taken by the NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association), the competitive environment, and the focus on a life in sports after college have brought us to year-round activities associated with a primary sport. The level of expectation from the coaches and from the external constituencies—that includes both fans and other supporters, media, hometown—plus all of the reporting, identification, and stratification of student-athletes' lives have created an almost insidious pressure on young people as it relates to their sport. At the same time, student-athletes have less latitude when they are in school because of NCAA regulations, progression requirements for continuing eligibility, and timely graduation rate pressures. The level of academic programming that we now have is a plus, but it adds yet another requirement to their lives. Today's student-athlete often feels buffeted by the competing interests and extra responsibilities he or she must attempt to balance.

We had nothing like this a few years ago. During the 1970s when I was a head coach, there was a defined off-season. It's not true in many of our sports now. Some Olympic sports exceed the so-called revenue sports in demands. Further, most young people on Division I-A college football teams will attend at least one session of summer school and in many instances two. Typically, they don't have the time to relax, regroup, and regenerate. The constant time demands that we place on young people are indicative of the increasing pace of society. When you're in your youth, I personally think there is a need for more time to recreate and relax, but that's not the norm today. And I don't think it will get better.

Barefoot: Do you think it's going to get worse?

McGee: I don't think it can get much worse, quite frankly. However, I don't think it's terribly detrimental as we deal with it on a contemporary basis with these young people, but I'm not sure. I can say that the demands on young people from all the various constituencies that are involved have increased exponentially. Look at academic support services, one of the neat things we have done in our business. Look at how it has penetrated their lives. And we didn't have this ten years ago. It's "looking over their shoulder" at the very least. As educators we need to be aware that the demands created through this highly competitive athletic experience are going to have some potentially negative consequences for student-athletes; if we don't stay on top of it, we might do more harm than good. So it's an interesting dilemma that we've created. If you look at the coach, the academic advisor, the physical trainer, the faculty, the deans, the administrators—all of us have our own interests in our student-athletes' time. Taken singly these functions have merit, but they can overlap counterproductively.

Barefoot: Are there programs that exist here at USC to help students achieve this balance between academics and athletics? You're talking about the pressure that comes from all these different points. Do you talk to them about how to manage this pressure?

McGee: Yes we do. For example, during the orientation programs we bring in resource persons that talk to our athletes and help them address their priorities, decisions, and choices. I don't think that anybody is doing a proper job of it yet, but we're all trying.

Barefoot: But you at least forewarn them and try to help them understand what they're getting into?

McGee: Frankly, a crucial step in ensuring that they have a successful collegiate experience is the process of hiring the right people—people who have the best interests of the student-athlete at heart. In student-athletes' lives, the coaches have the greatest leverage and often can be somewhat dominating in their demands. If coaches overly separate, segregate, and insulate their athletes, these students will miss some of the college experience that has its own values and interests. This is a disservice to the student-athlete. How the coach balances the various competing demands upon student-athletes is critical, and hiring the right person is where that starts.

Barefoot: How would you respond to critics who argue that colleges and universities are more interested in grooming future professional athletes than in helping prepare students for a life off the playing field should they not make the pros?

McGee: In some instances, the critics have a good point. I look at college sports properly conducted as giving tremendous advantage to athletes when they do graduate. Without that degree, given initiative on the part of the athlete, the system has failed. You can certainly look at the negatives somewhat narrowly, and argue that the emphasis on overall development and growth during this four-year period seems to pale in comparison to the focus on preparing student-athletes physically. But even in those instances, college athletes are required now to meet progress levels towards a degree to maintain eligibility. Almost without exception today, as opposed to ten years ago, young people who have been on a college campus four years are within striking distance of getting a college degree. So even though there remain some situations where one winces at what seems to be an overemphasis on preparation for pro sports, there are other advantages being gained that can be taken advantage of today that were not evident a number of years ago.

Barefoot: Understanding that most college athletes don't make the pros (although most come here hoping they will), do you provide any help or avenues to introduce other options for taking the skills they're learning here—teamwork, leadership ability, etc.—and applying them somewhere else?

McGee: There are programming efforts that seek, during the first two years of their time on campus, to get student-athletes to focus on real-world kinds of decisions and choices. Frankly, in my observation, a lot of this pressure—focusing on

the professional career—comes from people outside the university community.

Barefoot: How would farm leagues for the NFL or the NBA affect the manner of recruiting for college football and basketball, and is there any likelihood of legitimate football or basketball farm teams in the future, in your opinion?

McGee: Well, it's not practical in the sport of football because of the high costs that are associated with putting a football team on the field. So many people and such large organizational efforts are necessary for football that in Division I-AA and I-AAA and Division II and III, and some I-A schools, programs run at an annual shortfall. On the other hand, it is highly likely that over time we will see some continuing development of alternative opportunities for outstanding high school basketball athletes. There are quite a number of young people who are leaving in the early years of their college experience right now to join pro teams, an indication that high school student-athletes are much farther along than they used to be in terms of athletic development. Because of the development, early coaching, and competitive opportunities, young people are physically more capable now at earlier ages. If the academic requirements are further toughened and there is a viable opportunity for young people to play a year or two in a so-called farm team or European team, then I think we're going to see that development. We are seeing certain aspects of that in some of the summer basketball camps and events today. And there may even be a television interest that might spur the development of some kind of a minor professional-type league that would be a new phenomenon.

Barefoot: Would you judge that to be a good thing for some young athletes?

McGee: I think it would be a bad thing. It would be an easy alternative for young people who maybe have a false sense of their own abilities or have been persuaded by others that they have opportunities that just simply are not likely to be realized at the NBA level.

Barefoot: We've talked about academic and athletic pressures and balancing those, but I'm curious to know, in your opinion, whether faculty, university staff, and other students hold negative stereotypes about student-athletes, and if so, what effect those stereotypes have on the student-athlete?

McGee: This is an age-old problem, particularly where there has been a high level of segregation of athletes and their activities from the general student body. Traditionally, there has been some stereotyping by faculty of student-athletes. To address this concern at USC, we have a faculty "guest coach" program. Instructors who apply are given a special introduction to the athletic side of the student-athlete's life. They attend Thursday practice, a training table or evening meal, and the Friday meeting. They are exposed to the players' Saturday pregame regimen. Finally, they get to sit on the bench for the games. Almost without exception the faculty who participate in the program will respond that it is an eye-opening experience for them as they learn about the level of sophistication in student-athletes' football preparation. And also they see the emotion and the high level of cohesiveness and camaraderie that exist in preparing for a game. I suspect there are a lot of misunderstandings and misconceptions about the experience young people are going through in preparing for and competing in athletic contests, especially in a conference like the SEC (Southeastern Conference).

Barefoot: Is the fact that some faculty members have lower expectations for student-athletes a problem? Do you ever sense that sometimes the student-athlete might just meet those lower expectations without trying to go beyond?

McGee: I think that is a general problem—the whole notion of getting by, staying eligible. I don't know that you can attach that to faculty. I think that it probably comes from a philosophy and an approach to dealing with student-athletes. And again I go back to the fact that the coach has got the greatest leverage. Hopefully, he or she should have high expectations and communicate that just being eligible is not satisfactory. The University of South Carolina has generally been among the top two or three in our conference in graduation rates for the past four years. We try to stress the notion of achievement, not eligibility. That's because the NCAA

set the eligibility requirements actually quite low. Staying eligible to compete in the sport in almost every instance is too low a standard.

Barefoot: Should student-athletes, in your opinion, receive special treatment, and to what degree is social isolation from the rest of the campus a problem?

McGee: Well, it's a problem. It used to be a greater problem before we had the requirement that no residence hall can be more than 50% student-athletes. And yet we still have to recognize the demands in a highly competitive arena upon the young people to have any chance for success. Today college sports are year round: Ironically, the graduation rate for student-athletes is higher nationally than for the entire student body. That was not always the case. I think that because of the special academic programs in the last five to ten years, we have seen the graduation rates improve in every category. The overall positive trend has been the result of the programming and the pressure created by having to make graduation rates public. All that has been very positive. So the issue is, do you provide the special programming? Are you doing too much? Without it, we would have an academic mess.

Barefoot: What complimentary roles do coaches and the athletics director play in the academic success of student-athletes?

McGee: We evaluate our coaches on the academic progress of their young people. That is one of the indicators in compensation—that's an expectation. Clearly coaches have the greatest leverage on student-athletes. For academic programming to work properly, it's got to be with a very close and highly communicative relationship between coaches and the academic services staff.

Barefoot: And your role in that is picking the right coaches?

McGee: Picking the right coaches—making sure that those lines of communication are in fact open and the process is working.

Barefoot: Thinking about the academic enrichment center for athletes, is there a danger of doing too much for student-athletes? Where do the tutors and advisors draw the line in the amount of help they give?

McGee: That is a significant area of concern. When admitting marginal student-athletes and knowing that some remediation might be needed it's got to be a support role with encouragement and monitoring. There has got to be a weaning process as one goes forward. Our academic support people are informed about where the assistance line is drawn, and if they cross it, they will be fired. That's one of the responsibilities that we in administration and the academic director are held accountable for.

Barefoot: Could you speak for a minute on any unique issues of transition for women student-athletes? Do they have any unique challenges that might differentiate them from the men?

McGee: Yes, I think in a number of areas. I think we have all been pleasantly surprised at just how readily young women have adapted to the highly competitive, physically stressful regimen that is part of college athletics today. We had seen some problems, for instance, with stress fractures among young women who had not had a lot of physical training early in their lives. Increasingly, young women in junior high and high school experience physical activities and development to the extent that we are not seeing similar kinds of problems. We have also seen problems that seem to be much more prevalent in women than men. We have now our psychological staffing here. Women are generally adaptive academically and, in most instances, outperform men. So most of the concerns relate to the physical requirements and demands. There has been an enormous improvement in ten years. The rapid growth we are seeing in sports development is generally in women's sports. That's one of the exciting things about our business.

Barefoot: Aside from generating income, how, in your opinion, does athletics contribute to the primarily educational mission of a college or university?

McGee: I would suggest that at a number of institutions, including this one, there is a very

definite financial contribution back to the institution, both direct and indirect, which is quantifiable. But beyond that, not to recognize the natural competitive interests among young people is really to be missing a central point of their development. One might question having only 500 athletes on a campus of 17,000 to 18,000. But it is at such a high level of competitive performance that, in fact, it does have a real impact on the whole campus. I don't think what we do detracts from any student's interest, identification, and ultimate support back for that institution, if, in fact, the university has a vigorous effort related to its athletics program. I could argue positively about the individual benefits to the participants, but when you look beyond that, clearly, there is a level of interest that reaches many of those people who attend the games—that's the way they identify with the program. If you look at teaching, research, and service, athletics doesn't have any particular impact on those areas, but surely a college campus should be about personal growth and whole-person development of the student. It is said students learn more outside of the classroom than in, and most mission statements now reflect the whole-person concept as a campus responsibility that should be afforded to college students. Part of that are the activities on our campuses such as athletics.

Barefoot: Is it about tradition and a sense of community on a campus?

McGee: Yes, clearly. Identification back with the institution. I think it is interesting that in many instances, the donor support of the institution is to some extent related to former students' strong identification with the athletics program.

Barefoot: If you could change anything about college athletics—from the way athletes are recruited, eligibility, rules and regulations, the life of athletes in college, their future careers—if you could wave a magic wand, what changes would you make?

McGee: I am concerned about what I see as symptoms of problems—in some sports recruiting has become so highly competitive that it is often controlled by noneducational parties. I am concerned about commercialism. It is a fact, however, that we spend an enormous amount of those dollars generated through forms of commercialism on sports that simply would not have resources without the money generated. At USC, for instance, football pays for itself five times over. And all those resources are important to running our Olympic sports that simply don't generate sufficient resources. So I can argue that side of it; but all of us wince a bit when we stop football games for three minutes in the middle of the activity so we can put commercials on television and radio. Further, the fact is that some of the salaries seem to be out of proportion to other areas of the campus, but not always. I will tell you that I have enormous respect for coaches and the amount of time and effort they put into their profession. On the other hand, there are so many healthy aspects of college sports, as I pointed out earlier with student-athletes; although we're putting all these demands on them, they're graduating at a higher average rate than other students. Without the costly programming we've put in place, it simply would not occur. So in a sense we have created a new reality—maybe that's overdone. The pressures as they relate to turnover in staffs is troubling. On the other hand, a coach goes into a new position with his or her eyes open. In many instances, we protect the head coach, but we don't protect the assistant coaches. We try to make decisions on the basis of what's in the best interest of the institution and the student-athletes.

Barefoot: Would you change that in any way if you could?

McGee: Well, there are places where the coaches are so valued in their role on that campus that they have been put on tenure. It takes away the "win or else" syndrome and "win at all costs" kind of mentality which are sometimes seen. I think we put too many demands on young people. It would be nice to see student-athletes have more time when they're in their first or second year. I would like to see us give a little more space to the young people. However, I don't think it's going to change. College sports is a wonderful opportunity for young people who are involved. If you ask any young athlete coming out of college today if it was worth it, the general response is "you bet." That tells you something.

CHAPTER 2

COUNSELING THE COLLEGIATE STUDENT-ATHLETE: HISTORY, PROBLEMS, AND POSSIBLE INNOVATIONS

Tim Fields

In the absence of a reliable instrument which empirically assesses compatibility in the college selection process, colleges and universities must seek to address the student-athlete's holistic needs with objective, proactive, multicultural programming if they are to engage and retain him or her. A symbiotic relationship between university and student-athlete is best served through innovative programs that entice, not cater to, the diverse fragile egos and forming identities that characterize many incoming student-athletes nationwide (American Institute for Research [AIR], 1989). Proactive programs that identify and address extensive student-athlete issues, such as fear of success or failure, poor academic performance, social adjustment difficulties, alcohol and drug use, career selection difficulties, and unmet athletic potential, contribute to attrition and lost university revenue (Etzel, Ferrante, Pinkney, 1991; Michener, 1976). Existing assistance programs for athletes should collaborate with programs already available for mainstream (non-varsity) student populations. This could help alleviate the insulated, isolated image of student-athletes, the genesis of many social and academic obstacles to college success and happiness (AIR, 1989). The "polylemma" (Abbey, 1988) for colleges and universities in the late 20th century and beyond is how to assess and address student-athletes' needs realistically while concurrently guiding these young men and women into and through the sometimes volatile, often well-publicized, experimentations of early adulthood.

Many student-athletes perceive college as time spent in wonderland, a fantasy threshold to step through until graduation, when their real world can be reentered. Primary problems of first-year students may revolve around unexplored perceptions of inadequacy, both academically and socially, formed in competition with college peers. They often choose to deny the fear as a way of controlling it, instead employing coping mechanisms like alcohol and substance abuse, bouts with uninhibited anger, and potentially harmful transient sexual relationships, which may generate as much real pain as any perception. A high school student's expectations of college inadequacy may exaggerate the skills his or her more seasoned college peers possess and further inhibit the student's fragile new identity. Yet despite all their noble intentions, most student-athlete assistance programs monitor athletes to assure eligibility (Lanning, 1982) but possess neither the facilities nor the inclination to expand the student-athlete's holistic horizons. Many contemporary collegiate

assistance programs (their dedicated professional staff notwithstanding) employ superficial, retroactive approaches to student-athlete "maintenance" (AIR, 1989; Brooks, Etzel, & Ostrow, 1987; Gordon, 1986; Nelson, 1983; Pickney, Ferrante, & Etzel, 1990). These assistance programs, generally funded by athletics departments and staffed by their personnel, create loyalty dilemmas for many student-athletes. Why would young student-athletes, already ignorant of the temptations and responsibilities of freshman life, choose to entrust their future to advisors who they suspect are more interested in them as a university investment than as a complete person? And do universities unintentionally conspire to disable student-athletes, often by designating a single campus agency as sole executor of their needs?

The 1997 edition of Webster's dictionary defines nova as a star that suddenly increases its light output tremendously and then fades away to its former obscurity in a few months or years. This definition may ring familiar to those of us who counsel and advise collegiate student-athletes. Many incoming freshmen have spent their high school athletic years like novas exploding in skies of contradiction. Coolly detached from the admiration and acceptance of their peers, athletes construct much of their self-worth on the critiques of their temporal performances. Athletic exploits become the yardstick of their worth and acceptance in the proving ground of adolescence (Lanning, 1982). Too often, these athletic accomplishments are seen as their reason for existence, their sole identity, and they become blinded by their own light. What myths contribute to a high school athletes' image of himself/herself as a legend? How can we as college advisors, counselors, and university administrators debunk the myths and assist the first-year transition of "high school legend" to "college mortal?" Early in their high school athletic careers, athletes become addicted to winning or the invigoration that being "better than most" produces. These feelings of acceptance and elitism that "being perfect" conjures, become the very toxin which reinforces those positive or negative behaviors seen as being necessary ingredients for the "ultimate experience" (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). The true addiction of athletics comes in reproducing the circumstances and frequency of this success. The circumstances, and eventually the frequency of success, are entwined in the adolescent mind. The athlete may believe that superstitions, antisocial behavior (violence, risk taking, detachment from non-varsity peers), and stereotypes (not having to excel academically, believing that eligibility will be "arranged" by the college, or exaggerating their chances of professional success) are all ingredients necessary for success and its subsequent enticements. To maintain that "high," or to avoid the disappointment of not being perfect (failing or not meeting expectations), athletes often surrender the immense responsibility of being mature, of being self-reliant, and maybe even of being honest.

For some, high school academics becomes a series of misadventures (and exploitation) with its own conspiracy of dunces. Research has chronicled the societal undermining of athletics for many years (Edwards, 1983; Lanning, 1982; Nelson, 1983) in many different forms. Friends of athletes may innocently protect their idols' absences by writing papers and doing assignments. These friendships may extend to ghost writing exams or projects. Other situations of students cheating to aid student-athletes in high school surely are often acknowledged by a silent majority. Coaches may arrange an athlete's class schedule to allow more athletic preparation (Figler & Figler, 1984).

Coaches or advisors who solicit sympathetic faculty to assist or even promote the struggling student-athlete violate more than ethical principles; they borrow on the future of the student-athlete. One suspects that high school faculty who promote or softly grade borderline athletes to retain their eligibility do so for reasons ranging from misplaced loyalty to monetary gain. Faculty may justify this practice based upon some egalitarian concern that the athlete should not be deprived of a possible lucrative future just because his or her academic skills are deficient. Alumni faculty may act on some misguided loyalty to their school, employer, or fellow alumni. Coaches and other interested faculty may profit outright monetarily, as unpalatable as that is, from sports agents or universities in the business of college athletics. How many collegiate assistant coaches' graduate degrees have been financed by the dedication and talent of their vested interest—their high school All-American?

These practices often either assume, or worse, ignore, self-exploration of the genuine dreams and needs of the athlete in high school. They also establish a dangerous precedent for college expectations. Although these situations are not the norm in the U. S. today, the chance that they exist at all produces very unrealistic expectations in new college freshmen. Every situation mentioned above reinforces their perceived uniqueness. Every allowance on the athlete's behalf, taken in his or her best interest, may become the expected treatment of that athlete throughout college and adulthood. The treatment supports the myth that these student-athletes are not expected, or worse, not able, to handle their own problems. Typical freshmen adjustment problems of career indecision, separation from home, feared inadequacies regarding academic performance, limited peer relationships, poorly defined self-image (Lanning, 1982; Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1987) are often not explored, only their symptoms.

Varying responses of parents and college administrators to the first-year student-athlete's "coping mechanism du jour" conspire to further confuse the first-year student. Because immature freshmen often feel impotent to exact effective change in their frustrating world, they may seek scapegoats or seek to deny the existence of any conflict. If society objects to the student-athlete's inappropriate behavior, the freshman may once again feel persecuted or oppressed by an "overbearing" system and rebel. This rebellion is a familiar impediment in the search for identity.

The following factors often overlap and intertwine, leading to a cycle of disappointment, frustration, and rebellion on the part of student-athletes who feel oppressed by the demands of the adult world:

- denial of their fear of inadequacy, failure, and/or success
- social disapproval (difficulties with teammates, coaches, faculty, fans, and media)
- frustration, inappropriate behavior (more unmet expectations)
- poor athletic and/or athletic productivity (unreached potential: frustration leads to acting out behavior)

Society's rejection or indifference to inappropriate behavior serves to reinforce the student-athlete's already oppressive perception of the adult world. This spiral of criticism or indifference may cause the freshmen to become even more entrenched into their new, but superficially explored, value system. The downward spiral can only be curtailed by a thorough exploration of how present thinking has been affected by their family of origin or their own past histories. Examining the possible causes and conditions within their family-of-origin interactions may clarify how college freshmen make everyday value decisions. Convincing freshmen athletes who are influenced primarily by their peers that college and university counseling programs offer viable alternatives to their frustration is a matter of concern for both parents and these institutions.

Adolescent student-athletes may suspect that their identities (and futures) hinge solely upon the fulfillment of imposed or perceived parental values and dreams. The pressure of parental expectations often makes student-athletes resent those who try to establish dreams and goals for them. Their resentment may lead to conflicts at home over who should be responsible for creating dreams and goals. Common family scenarios, in which the college freshman denies any fear of inadequacy regarding college peers and parental expectations, only exacerbates the struggle. These feelings may then be reformulated as anger, and if the anger is suppressed as "good" children should, heavy emotional tolls will be paid. When freshmen choose to project their anger in the guise of hate crimes, racism, and sexism rather than dealing with its origins, their surrounding family systems and institutions clamp down on them. In this volatile arena the student-athlete's grades may plummet as parent-child and college-peer communication erodes, further aggravated by increased parental disappointment, peer suspicion, and cynicism.

An awkward weaning from home may also uncover unexplored parental fears which can result in rigid expectations for their offspring freshman. Parents' biological clocks seem to

tick decibels louder now as "children" spring forth to college, reminding parents of their own unfinished journeys, even fears of their limited mortality. This web of expectation and doubt can tangle even the healthiest parent-child relationship particularly during the difficult transitional period of collegiate competition. During their initial years in college, freshmen are particularly sensitive to the ambivalent messages of their parents (Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). The natural weaning of young from the nest is made more difficult if freshman students perceive home support waning during this critical transition. Parents, many distracted at this time by journeys of their own, are forced to walk a very fine tightrope. Too much care and attention hinders the adolescent's natural separation process, and too little fosters feelings of abandonment and inadequacy, as well as the parent's own feelings of isolation and loss of purpose (child rearing).

Although these feelings may be extreme, adolescents often suppress rational thought, allowing their feelings to dictate their behavior. This tendency towards overly emotional decision-making is further exacerbated by the pressures of entering the novel environment of a competitive university. This transition to college too often becomes either (a) a time for biting criticism and unrealistic academic/social expectations, creating an environment volatile enough to blame for detachment (to avoid the natural sorrow of separation and "loss" to adulthood); or (b) a time for over-involvement, imposing arbitrary limitations on finances and personal freedoms, or negotiating "privileges for grades" agreements in order to remain attached. The circuitous, empty path chosen in order to "feel better" by venting emotions or inventing problems to be solved together infects the healthy distancing of the student-athlete from the home.

Because self-exploration is the genesis of maturity, and college remains a relatively safe environment for this exploration to occur, parents should not judge their adolescents too harshly, lest their development become truly arrested. One must remember that freshman students at the close of the 20th century have generally been reared in environments where success or survival skills transcend personal development and community ideals. Families that lovingly teach their children to defend themselves too well plant seeds of suspicion and danger in places where none may exist, perpetuating the very darkness they fear for their children. It is like teaching someone to drive in an armored tank—you're insulated and most likely will get where you're headed, but the joy of the journey, the experience of the present, is lost in the cramped, awkward confines.

Just as the sins of the parents may be visited upon their children during formative child-rearing years, the future will reflect the patience and support parents and guardians employ today. Student-athletes seem to possess remote controls for their emotions, appearing cool and aloof, which distances them from their fragile, brutal world of violence and uncertain career futures, but often leaves them superficially tough and inwardly brittle.

The Role of Advising Centers for Student-Athletes

At this important time in the history of collegiate athletics, innovative counseling programs can guide both student-athletes and their families through college. Most major American universities today, in cooperation with their athletic departments on campus, have established advising centers for varsity student-athletes (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Lanning, 1982). These advising centers are designed to "guide" the student-athlete's transition from high school to college or beyond. The naive college freshman with hir or her baggage of exaggerated self-worth and unrealistic expectation of college academics and athletic demands, may allow others to make the "hard" decisions about his or her future (Lanning, 1982). But while these college demigods now face titans of equal prowess and have their ability and worth challenged on the playing fields, academic demands arise which may present a more daunting challenge. The testing of the freshman's academic and athletic mettle on these new battlefields forces an inexperienced decision-maker to either mature too quickly or accept too many external decision-makers without discussion.

Advising centers are often ready to guide the athlete through college, but they too may have mixed agendas and split loyalties. Athletic advising centers must abide by NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association) admission and academic progress standards, and they exist to work with the athlete to maintain eligibility until graduation or through the duration of athletic eligibility. Through an exhaustive list of programs like mandatory study halls, tutors, and academic coaches who monitor and advise, monitoring of classroom and study hall attendance, computer-assisted study-aids sessions, and endless numbers of staff and student meetings, the athletes are often "guided" through college by decisions made in their best interest.

The primary objective of athletic advising centers is to provide the best possible guidance, but commitment and timing must be clearly symbolic. Most major institutions will earmark funds generated by their athletics departments to finance these advising centers, giving the athletics departments great latitude in the business of advising these new students on campus. However, the department's interest in its new investment has raised questions of commitment (Lanning, 1982) and conflicting interest. Athletics departments may unintentionally relay contradictory messages to their advising centers, telling them to provide quality guidance focused on the genuine needs of each individual student-athlete while keeping him or her eligible to participate. But American sports is still big business, and, in the event a "franchise" student-athlete becomes ineligible, usually it is the advising center, not the athlete, that is held responsible (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 1991). And while the waning integrity of uncontrolled athletic businesses generating millions annually is questionable (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Michener, 1976), the issue here is to explore the student-athlete, and the changes that must occur in athletic advising centers to meet the athlete's changing environment.

To relieve the growing pressure to control universities' investments, advising centers offer the stable of services mentioned earlier, but in a strangely familiar form. Using mostly retroactive programs (study halls after probation, tutors after academic trouble arises, correspondence courses to retain their eligibility), the standard approach of athletic advising centers in addressing the athlete's transition is to keep him or her on a short leash—protect, patrol, control. Much of the assistance is a result of genuine concern for the athlete, but suspicion and frustration may fester in athletes when decisions are continually made "on their behalf," and for such perceived insincere stakes as monetary gain (Michener, 1976; Tutko & Richards, 1971). The advising mentality that focuses on controlling the athlete's environment without the exploration or discussion of individual needs and dreams may produce the kind of student-athlete who requires help. The model of an immature, irresponsible student-athlete is perpetuated as are the advising centers that decide what their student-athletes need. No magical solutions will change this circle; it requires a change in the controlling powers-that-be (Figler & Figler, 1984).

Centers which will allow academic setbacks to occur as the athlete becomes involved with his or her own decisions and is held accountable for those decisions are the solution. Proactive counseling programs which (a) are sensitive to the student-athlete's factual, not fictional, expectations; (b) allow participatory, not assumed assistance; and (c) enact positive, preventive intervention, are in great need (Bergandi & Wittig, 1984). Adjusting to the differences between college and high school is difficult for most freshmen, but the false perceptions of invincibility many student-athletes hold are akin to time bombs searching for a place to explode. Some young men and women are mature enough to channel the high school glory into proper perspective, and succeed on collegiate playing fields and classrooms. Some, however, who are overwhelmed by the challenges for which no early preparation was provided, enter college, and are never heard from again. Most fight the college battles ill-equipped and are easily exploited once again, despite the onslaught of athletic services at their disposal (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Edwards, 1983). The natural-selection odds of only the fittest surviving can be improved. The problem seems to be that without a nonpartisan ongoing assessment of the athlete's capabilities, advising centers will remain only symptom-treaters in the athlete's world.

Cognitive Behavioral Intervention Scheme

There is a dearth of exemplary research on these common problems or concerns of incoming college student-athletes (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Edwards, 1983; Lanning, 1982; Nelson, 1982; Purdy, Eitzen, & Hufnagel, 1982):

- Student-athletes often base their self-worth upon their performance.
- They often live in closed systems —in athletic dorms with teammates or other athletes.
- They often manage stress poorly, perceiving it as out of their control.
- They often have great difficulty effectively managing time (it's usually done for them by coaches or administrative staff).

Intercollegiate athletics remain big business in the U. S. (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Michener, 1976), and when the line between meaningful intervention and profit is crossed, the intervention may suffer. Universities are obligated to educate their student-athletes in the curriculum of self-exploration, helping the athlete assess realistic educational and vocational goals while assuring early and consistent academic assistance and also providing nonpartisan personal counseling or mental health services apart from the athletic community.

The cognitive-behavioral intervention scheme that follows focuses not on the specific product of improved academic and athletic performance, but on the process of restructuring athletic advising centers to offer proactive, holistic counseling to better guide the athlete towards a more productive adulthood. Cognitive therapy incorporates the ambitious drive of these student-athletes, redirecting their focus into more realistic athletic, personal, and career aspirations in college. Professional counselors can work with groups or individuals, in the office or on playing fields, to explore and help restructure the way student-athletes perceive and respond to stressful situations. The goal is initially to examine the thoughts which dictate feelings, then ultimately to reprogram unproductive responses to various anxiety-producing stimuli, thereby improving performance (Fields, 1988).

- Exploring Family of Origin or Other Existing Belief Systems (Beck, 1976; Ellis, 1962):

  Irrational perceptions of self and significant others may uncover limiting self-appraisals and connect them to subconscious family-of-origin messages.

- Cognitive Restructuring (Ellis, 1962; Meichenbaum & Cameron, 1974):

  Once irrational perceptions are identified, the student-athlete can begin the difficult task of restructuring them into healthy self-talk by delineating fact from fiction.

- Constructive Visualization (Hirai, 1976; Ikemi, & Deshimaru, 1984; Suinn, 1980; Watts, 1957):

  This is the construction of a successful mental image of the task, utilizing mental rehearsal practices like mental imagery and/or mind-body integration practices (Zen Buddhist meditation), to facilitate its actual occurrence.

Counseling and mental health centers on campuses nationwide could tailor programs to stimulate the proper receptors which initiate and reinforce individual student-athletes' healthy coping mechanisms. They must remain varied enough to accommodate the diverse cultural and social beings which comprise freshman classes, but simple and contemporary enough to meet student and family needs. They must engage college peer assistance to dismantle the caste system perception many incoming freshman athletes and non-athletes alike have regarding college upperclassmen. Visual receptors honed on television and video games can be stimulated by student-run programs trained and supervised by university staff in mental imagery, relaxation, and nondenominational meditation.

Freshmen searching for their niche can benefit from meditation when concepts of acceptance and tolerance for difference are entwined into the practice. Proactive responses to new set-

tings—not old, ineffective, reactive behaviors—can be explored. Students willing to risk change and able to articulate feelings can incorporate constructive mental imagery with cognitive restructuring to address the irrational messages heard in high schools and sometimes, unfortunately, also at home. To assist the rediscovery, restructuring, and retraining of the freshman's thought processes, innovative mental health care appropriate to each individual's intellectual and acceptance levels is required.

Through energetic mental health maintenance, first-year students can move beyond the invisible cobweb separating their forming personal values from parental dictates to explore personal adjustment issues crucial to success in college and life. Free of the burden of parental messages, college freshmen can expose dormant adaptive skills or learn to channel rediscovered energy to new coping skills to combat inhibitors of academic, athletic, and personal growth.

Bon voyage, student-athletes!

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CHAPTER 3

SELF-EFFICACY: A TOOL FOR PROVIDING EFFECTIVE SUPPORT SERVICES FOR STUDENT-ATHLETES

Jutta M. Street

Student-athletes face unique challenges and barriers which make their educational experiences at universities qualitatively different from those students who do not participate in intercollegiate athletics. From the time they arrive on campus, student-athletes are required to confront the simultaneous adjustment to athletic, academic, and social demands. How well individuals handle this complex situation, especially during the transition from high school to university, depends largely on their personal efficacy beliefs—that is, their confidence in being able to handle new demands successfully on unfamiliar ground. Low levels of confidence in one's ability to affect outcomes and control one's environment can lead to adjustment problems in the academic, personal, interpersonal, and athletic domains. It is proposed here that self-efficacy, a key component of social cognitive theory, provides an excellent framework for (a) understanding the special needs of student-athletes, (b) identifying those who might be at risk, and (c) designing effective interventions that will facilitate their personal development and academic success. A detailed examination of each of these topics will be provided in subsequent sections. First, however, the structure and causes of self-efficacy will be summarized.

The Construct of Self-Efficacy

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) considers individuals as operative agents who exercise control over their environment through the deployment of knowledge, activation of subskills, and mobilization of resources to manage changing situations. According to this theory, human agency consists of intentional acts which produce specific outcomes within a triadic constellation of reciprocal causation—that is, a transactional interaction among behavior, environmental events, and internal personal factors (cognitive, affective, and physical). Within this complexity of interactions, "perceived self-efficacy occupies a pivotal role" (Bandura, 1997, p. 35) because it influences the individual's choice of activities, motivational level to engage in a given activity, cognitive engagement, aspirations, effectiveness in using established skills, execution of planned action, and expectation of outcomes.

Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). Efficacious individuals not only have the skills required to cope with a particular situation, but they also "believe" that they can produce desired effects by their actions. Bandura viewed self-efficacy as a better predictor of behavior and performance than self-concept, self-esteem, locus of control, or past performance *per se* because behavior is codetermined by the reciprocal interplay of cognitive, environmental (social), and personal influences.

As a multidimensional construct that possesses multicausality, "efficacy is a generative ability in which cognitive, social, emotional, and behavioral subskills [that already exist] must be organized and effectively orchestrated to serve innumerable purposes" (Bandura, 1997, pp. 36-37). Due to its multifaceted structure, personal efficacy is, to some extent, context-specific; thus, a person may have high efficacy in one domain and low efficacy in another domain. Effective functioning requires both the skills and the efficacy beliefs to use these skills well in a given situation—that is, subskills must be integrated into an appropriate course of action and executed effectively under various, sometimes difficult, circumstances. Individuals with good skills may perform poorly because they do not have the belief that they can cope successfully under the existing circumstances.

Bandura (1986, 1997) identified four sources of information that affect self-efficacy beliefs: (a) enactive mastery experiences, (b) vicarious experiences, (c) verbal persuasion, and (d) physiological as well as affective states. Any or all of these four modalities of influence may affect efficacy beliefs at any given time. How information is selected and integrated into self-efficacy judgments ultimately depends on the individual's cognitive interpretation of these modalities.

Enactive Mastery Experiences

Enactive mastery experiences are the most influential source of efficacy information, involving personal accomplishments and a person's judgment about these accomplishments. In general, successes strengthen efficacy; failures undermine it, especially if they occur before a firm sense of efficacy has been established. Enactive mastery experiences encompass the active acquisition of the "cognitive, behavioral, and self-regulatory tools for creating and executing effective courses of action to manage ever-changing life circumstances" (Bandura, 1997, p. 80). According to Bandura, the extent to which performance experiences will affect perceived efficacy depends on (a) the person's preconception of his or her own capabilities, (b) perceived task difficulty and ambiguity of task demands, (c) the amount of effort expended, (d) the amount of external aid received, (e) the circumstances under which performance takes place, (f) the temporal pattern of successes and failures, and (g) the manner in which the enactive experiences are cognitively processed and reconstructed in memory. Attainments which require the overcoming of obstacles and challenges along the way foster the development of a resilient sense of self-efficacy. Once this type of efficacy is established, individuals usually persevere despite adversity and rebound quickly from setbacks.

Vicarious Experiences

Vicarious experiences, which usually have a weaker effect on efficacy than direct experiences, involve the transmission of competencies through observational learning or the comparison of one's attainment with that of others. Bandura (1997) regarded modeling, in the context of both social comparison and self-modeling, as "an effective tool for promoting a sense of personal efficacy" (p. 86). Key factors of the observational learning situation that influence self-efficacy appraisals are (a) the amount of uncertainty about one's capabilities, (b) modeling influences, (c) the instructive contribution of the model, and (d) the characteristics of the model. Effective models guide and motivate self-development by communicating positive aspirations, demonstrating new skills and strategies, and facilitating predictability as well as controllability.

Verbal Persuasion

Verbal persuasion, or positive appraisal by significant others, affirms a person's capabilities and provides encouragement for continued effort; thus, verbal persuasion fosters self-affirming beliefs that promote the development of skills and a sense of personal efficacy.

Persuasory efficacy appraisals are most effective if they focus on achieved gains rather than deficiencies, are provided by a knowledgeable and credible source, and are only moderately beyond the individual's current performance capabilities. Bandura (1997) suggested that "social persuasion serves best as part of a multifaceted strategy of self-development" (p. 105) in conjunction with other efficacy-building influences.

Physiological and Affective States

Physiological and affective states affect self-efficacy due to their influence on judgments of individual capability, strength, and vulnerability to dysfunction. Bandura (1997) pointed out that it is the individual's perception or interpretation of physiological arousal, rather than the arousal *per se*, that affects efficacy judgments due to the interaction of psychological and physiological reactions. The impact of physiological states depends on (a) the perceived source of physiological activation, (b) the intensity and circumstances of activation, and (c) construal biases. Thus, "those who are prone to construe their arousal as stemming from personal inadequacies are more likely to lower their perceived efficacy than those who regard their arousal as a common transitory reaction that even the most competent people experience from time to time" (p. 109). In an indirect manner, affective states can influence the interpretation and cognitive organization of events by creating mood-biased memories—that is, positive moods are more likely to activate memories of past successes than negative moods.

In any given situation, the relative impact of the four sources of efficacy information depends on the various social, personal, and situational factors which influence the individual's self-regulatory or cognitive processes that are employed to select, weigh, and integrate the available information into self-efficacy judgments. The interaction among self-efficacy beliefs and the cognitive, motivational, affective, and decisional mediating processes activated by these beliefs determine whether or not attainments are realized. Individuals who fall short of reaching their performance goals often do so not because they absolutely lack the required skills but because they lack the efficacy beliefs to use or improve these skills effectively under difficult circumstances. Student-athletes routinely face exacting circumstances in their daily attempts to manage the often conflicting demands and requirements inherent in their dual role. Through an examination of self-efficacy factors, support professionals can increase their understanding of the special needs of this population.

Student-Athletes' Needs

Student-athletes face special challenges in the transition to and the continued successful functioning in college. Support professionals aiming to facilitate student-athletes' academic, athletic, and personal development should seek to understand the special needs of this population within the framework of self-efficacy theory because it provides a useful tool for the examination of the individual's choice of activities, motivation level, thoughts about various tasks, aspirations, expectations of outcomes, execution of plan, and effectiveness in using available skills.

Several authors (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1995; Parham, 1993; Sedlacek, 1995; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992) suggested that student-athletes constitute a special college population, much like other groups of nontraditional students (e.g., first-generation college students, adult students, foreign students). However, when student-athletes are classified as a special population, care must be taken not to create yet another detrimental label; instead, particular attention must be paid to the complexity of this population. Student-athletes represent a special population of great diversity with respect to ethnicity, race, socioeconomic background, gender, disability, and academic as well as athletic achievement. It is important to remember that they struggle with the same age- and stage-appropriate developmental tasks as students who are not engaged in intercollegiate sports; however, student-athletes face additional challenges which can complicate the resolution of these "routine" developmental tasks (Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991, 1993; Engstrom, Sedlacek, & McEwen, 1995; Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1995; Parham, 1993; Sedlacek, 1995; Zingg, 1982). These challenges give rise to the special needs of student-athletes and relate to the wide range of self-efficacy patterns found in this special

population. In addition to the normal developmental issues confronted by this age group, student-athletes must learn to (a) balance academic, athletic, and personal demands; (b) handle the physical and psychological pressures imposed upon them by the athletic environment; (c) deal with being stereotyped; (d) cope with discrimination; (e) adjust to social isolation; and (f) prepare for retirement from active competition. How individual student-athletes handle these challenges depends largely on their perceived self-efficacy with respect to the particular situation. In order to help student-athletes maintain or increase perceived self-efficacy in the face of these challenges, the specific personal-social and educational-vocational needs which characterize this population must be recognized and addressed.

Balancing Academic, Athletic, and Personal Demands

Balancing academic, athletic, and personal demands represents one of the primary challenges for student-athletes. This task is particularly difficult for the first-year student-athlete who is unfamiliar with the college environment and its academic (as well as athletic) culture. College adjustment issues normally confronted by first-year students are magnified for the first-year student-athlete by the extreme time constraints and the physical and psychological demands of training and competition (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1995; Remer, Tongate, & Watson, 1978). Individuals with low self-efficacy and poorly developed self-regulatory skills may become so overwhelmed that they become discouraged. Disappointment over nonattainment further erodes the individual's perceived self-efficacy. In order to maintain or increase self-efficacy, first-year student-athletes need specific support for dealing with the transition from high school to college; they need information about the institutional requirements, and they need to learn effective coping skills for balancing the increased demands of both the academic and athletic environment.

The carefully established balance between academic and athletic demands can quickly disintegrate if the student-athlete confronts traumatic and stressful life events, such as the terminal illness of a family member or a close friend, the death of a loved one, the breakup of a relationship, economic hardship, or family conflict. Such events can decrease perceived personal efficacy so that even otherwise routine situations become too overwhelming to handle. Bandura (1997) emphasized that nonability factors, such as motivation, self-regulatory processes, and affective states, influence self-appraisal of capability and performance most negatively when the environment contains stressors. Personal crises disrupt the student-athlete's already highly regimented routine and impose extreme stress which can affect performance both on and off the field. In such times of crisis, student-athletes need increased personal support interventions that will allow them to deal with their emotional reactions such as grief, loss, anger, or guilt; they also need intensified academic support while they are handling make-up work in addition to their regular course load.

Physical and Psychological Pressures of the Athletic Environment

Physical and psychological pressures of the athletic environment must be considered in conjunction with developmental and adjustment issues. Sedlacek and Adams-Gaston (1992) observed that the student-athlete's environment presents a number of impediments because it is exploitative, developmentally damaging, socially alienating, and generally nonsupportive. The competitiveness, the physical regimen, and the extreme emotional highs and lows associated with collegiate athletics, all of which must be handled in addition to normal college stress, make student-athletes, especially those who participate in revenue-producing sports, more vulnerable to developmental crises and psychological distress problems than non-athletes (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1995). Bandura (1997) pointed out that environmental impediments and uncertainties affect self-appraisal of efficacy. Despondency resulting from injury, perceived athletic inadequacy, losing performances, rehabilitation, or disability can break down cognitive control and self-regulatory mechanisms. Bandura (1997) observed that despondency "can lower efficacy beliefs . . . [which], in turn, weaken motivation and spawn poor performance, breeding even

deeper despondency in a downward cycle" (p. 113). Bandura pointed out that individuals with low self-efficacy are more at risk for the debilitating effects of crisis situations because "a low sense of efficacy . . . breeds depression, and depression, in turn, diminishes belief in one's personal efficacy" (p. 113). Effective support professionals must be aware of this bidirectional interaction and its effects; they must recognize the student-athlete's need for increased personal and academic support during times of physical and psychological stress.

Negative Stereotypes

Negative stereotypes about student-athletes persist among fellow students and faculty (Engstrom & Sedlacek, 1991, 1993; Engstrom, Sedlacek, & McEwen, 1995; Zingg, 1982). The "dumb jock" image is still all too prevalent across college campuses. Bandura (1997) addressed the debilitating effects of such stereotypes in connection with verbal persuasion and appraisal by significant others. He pointed out that teachers' devaluation of individuals who are believed to have limited capabilities often occurs in subtle and indirect forms, such as assigning unchallenging tasks, excessive praise for mediocre performance, repeated unsolicited help, and less recognition than others for a task performed equally well. Bandura concluded that "such practices tend to lower the recipients' judgments of their capability" (p. 102). The powerful, and often negative, effect of teacher expectations has been well documented elsewhere (Brophy, 1985; Dusek & Joseph, 1985; Good & Brophy, 1978, 1987). As a persuasory source of self-efficacy, low teacher expectations lead to self-appraisals that result in low academic self-efficacy. Such a debilitating self-efficacy pattern generates doubts which, in turn, lead to the individual's avoidance of tasks in that domain. The downward spiral continues as the lack of practice due to this avoidance behavior results in subsequent poor performance (Bandura, 1997; Dembo, 1994). Many student-athletes, but especially males and African Americans, have been the victims of low teacher expectations throughout their educational experiences. Thus, they often arrive at college with long internalized patterns of low self-efficacy. This perceived lack of ability is expressed either in underachievement or failure, with the former being the far more pervasive problem than the latter. The need is to provide effective academic support interventions that will restore a resilient sense of perceived self-efficacy in the academic domain and produce student-athletes who are no longer ready to "settle" for performance attainments below their capabilities.

Discrimination

Discrimination which has been and continues to be experienced by African-American student-athletes makes interventions particularly important for this population (Sedlacek, 1995). The persistent discriminatory affronts to their personal integrity and self-worth experienced by African-American student-athletes in all facets of their lives continue in college and require them to deal with prejudice on two fronts. They are often put in a position where they have to prove that they are academically capable (a) despite being African-American, and (b) despite being student-athletes. Hill (1993) cited the racial/ethnic minority factor as reason for considering African-American student-athletes "a special population within a special population" (p. 438). Sedlacek (1995) pointed out that the additional demands faced by African-American student-athletes must be addressed with psychosocial and academic support interventions which focus on teaching African-American student-athletes how to negotiate the institutional system. As many of these individuals are first-generation college students, their repertoire of dealing with college stress may be limited, and their coping self-efficacy may be low due to the lack of vicarious experiences with this environment. Thus, the need for African-American student-athletes is twofold. They, like all student-athletes, need effective academic support interventions to prevent underachievement or academic failure, but they also need effective psychosocial support interventions that will help them develop the necessary personal self-efficacy to deal with systemic discrimination and degradation.

Social Isolation

Social isolation of student-athletes due to separate living quarters, separate dining halls, and the time constraints imposed by their sport limit

contact with the general campus population and restrict the opportunities to interact with other students, faculty, or staff in cocurricular activities (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1995; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992). Remer, Tongate, and Watson (1978) observed that the college experience of student-athletes is characterized by overprotection, depersonalization, and segregation. This isolation reinforces the stereotypes held by others about student-athletes because it perpetuates the image of the privileged student-athlete. More importantly, the student-athlete's isolation reduces his or her chances to gain enactive experiences on campus. Thus, many opportunities for personal development and the enhancement of self-efficacy are missed.

Erikson (1968) observed that the college years are a crucial time for identity formation; they provide a moratorium, a time period during which active exploration of viable options and values can occur and provide enactive experiences which can enhance self-efficacy. Due to overidentification with their sport, many student-athletes exhibit identity foreclosure, which precludes exploratory behaviors and allows them to avoid the psychological disequilibrium associated with the confusion, fluctuating interests, inability to commit to a future direction, and ambivalence about life and career choices normally associated with the identity formation process (Petitpas & Champagne, 1989). In the long run, such avoidance inhibits the process of identity development. Bandura (1997) stressed that success experiences across contexts can strengthen a person's general sense of efficacy. In order to facilitate student-athletes' identity development and their general sense of efficacy, support programs must provide enactive experiences on campus and in the community. Without such social integration, student-athletes will be deprived of the vital experiences which are necessary for continued psychosocial development and successful post-college adjustment.

Retirement from Active Competition

Retirement from active competition may be experienced as stressful, depending on the timing and the circumstances of this major life event. When collegiate athletes terminate active competition, they usually have invested a great deal of time, effort, and sacrifice to achieve athletic success. This focus may have distracted them from coping with and resolving developmental issues in the personal, interpersonal, and occupational areas, thus leaving them insufficiently prepared for the transition and adjustment to life after collegiate sports. The degree of adjustment difficulties appears to be related to the individual's preparation for the event (Baillie, 1993). Student-athletes who take active steps during their college career to prepare for the functional and emotional adjustment to retirement from their sport seem to handle the transition better. As part of this preparation process, some student-athletes attribute decreasing significance to their sport over the course of their college years (Greendorfer & Blinde, 1985). These individuals exhibit strong agency and self-regulatory skills; in short, they assume control by evaluating their options, thinking about and planning their post-retirement future, and beginning the adjustment process while they are still in college. Bandura (1997) noted that this manner of exercising personal control characterizes the resilient self-efficacy that is essential to managing changing situations. When personal control is absent, as is the case for those who are forced to confront retirement prematurely because of injury, greater adjustment problems tend to be associated with the termination of active athletic competition. For these individuals, the sudden and involuntary change in their status may tax coping resources beyond the currently established level of efficacy. Finally, some student-athletes do not engage in active preparation for retirement; they avoid the issue and, therefore, are insufficiently prepared even when retirement occurs at a predictable time. These individuals tend to experience the adjustment as difficult and traumatic, especially if retirement is accompanied by disappointment over failed professional sports aspirations. Helping professionals must provide support interventions which prepare student-athletes for retirement from active competition. In order to provide maximum transitional assistance, this process must begin early in a student-athlete's career.

One area of post-retirement preparation involves career exploration. Hansen and Sackett (1993) found that student-athletes showed less

agreement than students from the general college population between declared college major and vocational interest as measured with the Strong Interest Inventory (SII). Student-athletes who received career counseling and engaged in career exploration activities during their first year in college changed majors more frequently and reported greater satisfaction with their majors than those who received no such counseling (Nelson, 1982; Street & Schroeder, 1996). These results suggest that student-athletes need intensive career exploration and career counseling in order to increase occupational self-efficacy, a major prerequisite for the successful post-retirement adjustment.

Identifying Those Who Are At Risk

First-semester student-athletes, regardless of their academic background and skill level, are often thoroughly overwhelmed by the multiple demands that are placed upon them. The lack of self-monitoring and self-regulatory skills, both key cognitive factors of perceived self-efficacy, is often the main impediment to the student-athlete's success in the college environment. Thus, a close examination of self-efficacy provides a crucial avenue to the early identification of those individuals most at risk.

Self-efficacy is context- or domain-specific, that is, individuals "develop different patterns of competencies and deploy them selectively depending on the match of efficacy beliefs to environmental demands and on anticipated outcomes" (Bandura, 1997, p. 13). A low sense of self-efficacy is marked by doubt about one's capabilities in the relevant domain of activity. Bandura pointed out that assessment of self-efficacy requires a clear conceptual definition of the activity domain in question, including its different facets, the types of capabilities it requires, and the range of situations in which these capabilities might be applied. The strength of an individual's self-efficacy can be determined by analyzing ten separate domain-specific behavioral and cognitive characteristics (see Table 1). These indicators can be employed for the identification of student-athletes who are at risk for adjustment problems due to low self-efficacy in one or more domains.

Assessment of self-efficacy must be comprehensive; it must include all of the primary domains in which the individual will have to function. According to Bandura's (1997) view of the interactive, multidimensional nature of self-efficacy, an individual may have different levels of self-efficacy for distinct domains. Thus, although efficacy involves some generality, the assumption that achievement in one domain is necessarily predictive of effective functioning in other domains is often invalid. Even within the same domain, efficacy in subskills may be high, but if the circumstances are taxing, as they often are for student-athletes, the overall efficacy in goal attainment may be low due to doubts about one's effective, integrated use of these subskills. Assessment of self-efficacy must focus on specific judgments of capability that may vary depending on (a) the contexts and activities, (b) the level of task demands within a given activity domain, (c) the extent of generality of efficacy, (d) the strength of efficacy beliefs, (e) the perceived importance of the activity, and (f) situational circumstances (pp. 42-46).

Methods of assessment include intake interviews, questionnaires, and observation. In order to gain preliminary knowledge about their efficacy beliefs, intake interviews should be conducted with all first-year student-athletes as soon as possible after their arrival on campus. At this time, the individual's perceived capabilities, past successes and failures (and their perceived causes), patterns of motivation, and coping strategies, especially in difficult situations, can be addressed. Interviews that are conducted in a nonthreatening fashion can reveal a great deal of information about the student-athlete's self-efficacy beliefs. Surveys, such as the Noncognitive Questionnaire (NCQ) developed by Sedlacek and Adams-Gaston (1992) should be administered periodically in order to monitor shifts in efficacy beliefs. Probably the most informative assessment data can be obtained through continuous, close observation of individual behaviors and monitoring of performance. Information derived over a period of time will reveal behavior patterns that will allow support professionals to examine how closely perceived efficacy matches the individual's actions and attainments. Bandura (1997) suggested the following sources for discordance between

beliefs about competencies and actual performance: (a) the individual's faulty assessment of self-efficacy, (b) a mismatch between self-efficacy and the given performance domain, (c) faulty self-knowledge, (d) poor self-regulatory skills in a given domain, (e) underestimation of task demands, (f) indefinite aims or deficient performance information, (g) ambiguity of task demands, or (h) disincentives and performance constraints. Student-athletes who are at risk need assistance in identifying and correcting these patterns. In order to attain a better balance between their self-efficacy beliefs and their attainments, they need guidance and practice in realistic self-appraisal, accurate assessment of task demands, and effective management of situational variables.

Recommendations for the Facilitation of Self-Efficacy

Effective support programs will not only assist student-athletes while they are in college, but will provide them with the resilient efficacy needed to undertake and sustain the efforts required to succeed in life. The crucial elements of effective support for student-athletes include: (a) qualified personnel; (b) counselor-student relationships that are built upon trust; (c) a responsive environment; and (d) structured activities that focus on the facilitation of personal, interpersonal, academic, and occupational self-efficacy.

Effective support programs for student-athletes require personnel who understand the specific

Table 1
Behavioral and Cognitive Characteristics of Self-Efficacy

	High Self-Efficacy Individuals	Low Self-Efficacy Individuals
Task Orientation	Accept difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered.	Avoid difficult tasks; see them as a threat.
Aspiration	Set challenging goals.	Low aspirations.
Goal Commitment	Maintain strong commitment to the goals they choose to pursue.	Weak commitment to goals.
Motivation	Interested in task.	Find it hard to motivate themselves.
Effort	Expend high effort when faced with challenging tasks.	Expend low effort when faced with challenging tasks.
Persistence	Persist when goals are not reached initially; stay engrossed in activity.	Give up quickly in face of obstacles.
Beliefs	Believe they will succeed; control stress and anxiety when goals are not met; believe they are in control of their environment.	Focus on feelings of incompetence; experience anxiety and depression when goals are not met; believe they are not in control of their environment.
Strategy Use	Discard unproductive strategies.	Persist with unproductive strategies.
Performance	Perform higher than low-efficacy individuals of equal ability.	Perform lower than high-efficacy individuals of equal ability.
Reaction to Failure	Attribute failure to insufficient effort; quickly recover sense of efficacy after failure or setback.	Interpret insufficient performance as deficient aptitude; slow to recover sense of efficacy after failure or setback.

issues confronted by this special population and who are prepared to provide the appropriate professional support. The notion that former student-athletes make good support counselors just because they "have been there themselves" provides a faulty premise. Unless these individuals also have obtained the necessary professional training in student support or a similar discipline, their personal experience by itself is not preparation enough to provide effective, comprehensive support to young adults who face developmental issues complicated by the added challenges and barriers unique to the student-athlete. Brooks, Etzel, and Ostrow (1987) found that the majority of the helping professionals available to student-athletes at NCAA Division I institutions were former student-athletes who spent 62% of their time on maintaining academic eligibility and sport performance enhancement. Others found that these counselors spent a disproportionate amount of time on disciplinary issues (Chartrand & Lent, 1987). Appropriately trained professionals would be able to expand the focus of support programs to serve all of the student-athletes at an institution. In addition to counseling skills, such individuals possess the competence to conduct formative assessment, to design developmentally appropriate interventions, and to develop programs that will enhance student-athletes' personal, interpersonal, academic, and occupational self-efficacy.

In order to provide effective services, support personnel must cultivate counselor-student relationships that are built upon trust. This type of relationship is essential in counteracting the student-athletes' tendency to exhibit defensiveness due to the perceived threat of evaluation by others (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1995), a behavior which can prevent timely assessment of stress reactions in personal as well as academic crisis situations. Professionals who are perceived as trustworthy will be able to obtain the information needed to identify low self-efficacy patterns, determine the causes for mismatches between self-efficacy and attainment, and assess crises which affect efficacy. They will be able to communicate openly with the student-athlete about the reasons for nonattainment, and they will be able to involve the individual actively in the intervention process.

Effective support programs must be part of an integrated institutional effort to provide a responsive environment within which student-athletes can strengthen their self-efficacy beliefs. Systems which operate according to conflicting agendas and allow the student-athlete little or no control are detrimental to the development of resilient self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) observed that behavior interacts with environmental influences to produce "different patterns of efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations . . . [which] have different psychosocial and emotional effects" (p. 21). Responsive environments reward valued accomplishments, foster aspirations, provide productive activities, and facilitate a sense of fulfillment. Unresponsive environments, in contrast, lead to negative consequences. Specifically, individuals who have a high sense of personal efficacy may experience resentment in such environments whereas those who have low self-efficacy tend to give up trying to gain control in these situations. A final possibility involves student-athletes with low self-efficacy who find themselves struggling with failure or underachievement within a responsive environment. When these individuals see others succeeding, their own failures can lead to self-devaluation and despondency. Therefore, support efforts must focus on both the facilitation of individual self-efficacy as well as environmental factors. If needed, support personnel must create a responsive environment within an otherwise unresponsive institutional structure. They must provide individualized interventions which increase perceived personal control through the combination of enactive mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and a focus on affective states.

Such interventions are particularly crucial for those who are at risk, a classification which should include (a) all individuals whose needs profiles indicate low self-efficacy in one or more domains; (b) all those whose current academic, personal, physical, or psychosocial status signals potential self-efficacy disruptions; and (c) all first-year student-athletes. For optimal results, program structure must be comprehensive and supportive rather than restrictive; it must focus on individual attention. Munsell and Cornwell (1994) found that at-risk students in structured programs attained better academic results than individuals who participated in less structured

programs. Due to the transition demands, all first-year student-athletes should be involved in highly structured programs for their initial semester.

Proven components of first-year intervention include a semester-long orientation course structured around the unique needs of student-athletes, career exploration programs, peer support programs, personal development seminars, tutorial services, supervised study halls, academic contracts, and regular meetings with a support professional (Denson, 1994; Levine, 1994; Munsell & Cornwell, 1994; Nelson, 1982; Petitpas & Champagne, 1989; Street & Schroeder, 1996). Orientation courses are particularly useful for facilitating academic self-efficacy by increasing what Denson called "academic navigation" skills. Individuals who feel more secure in their ability to handle academic demands and to negotiate the system are more likely to have enactive mastery experiences. Instructors of orientation courses can, moreover, function as persuasory sources of student-athletes' self-efficacy by guiding and motivating self-development, providing encouragement, communicating positive aspirations, and enhancing self-regulatory skills. In short, participation in this type of course can facilitate personal self-efficacy by increasing the perceived predictability and controllability of the college environment. Finally, by sharing their experiences, apprehensions, and coping strategies with peers, student-athletes who attend orientation courses vicariously participate in the adjustment process of their class members.

During the first year and beyond, additional interventions which offer the opportunity to enhance self-efficacy through vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and ultimately the facilitation of enactive mastery experiences are career exploration programs, peer support programs, and personal development and life skills seminars. Bandura (1997) defined vicarious experiences as information that alters efficacy through the transmission of competencies by models and the comparison with the attainment of these models. Usually, role models that are perceived as similar have the greatest effect on self-efficacy. Thus, activities which involve nonthreatening interaction with peers allow student-athletes to share their concerns about relevant issues. Older peers and former student-athletes can share anecdotes about their personal and academic adjustment struggles and their reflections, strategies, and successes in coping with these problems. By presenting a variety of models and paths to success, such vicarious experiences affect cognitive as well as motivational processes. Regardless of their level of self-efficacy, student-athletes can see in such role models that persistence and hard work will pay off, and they might begin to think, "If they can do this, so can I."

Whereas peer models are highly effective for career exploration and personal development interventions, tutorial assistance should be provided mostly by expert models, such as graduate students or trained teachers. Bandura (1997) observed that although similar models usually are viewed as more credible, "the functional value of modeled skills can override the influence of the model's . . . [similarity] on observers' judgments of their efficacy" (p. 98). Mature tutors can function not only as effective teachers and models, but also as persuasory sources of self-efficacy. High model competence overrides age, gender, and other personal attributes and "is an especially influential factor when observers have a lot to learn and models have much they can teach by instructive demonstration of skills and strategies. People are not about to discard information that makes them more efficacious just because it comes form a dissimilar source" (p. 101). Expert tutors can teach content-specific skills and strategies, but they can also verbalize thought processes, affirm capabilities, provide feedback about progress, encourage student-athletes to persist, and guide them toward enactive success experiences. Close mentor-student relationships that are built upon trust often allow tutors to become aware of potential or actual crises the student-athlete might experience. Thus, they can serve as an additional support and referral source. Finally, working with mature tutors will facilitate systemic self-efficacy because it provides actual experience in interacting with adults who are part of the system and represent an informational resource.

Regular, weekly meetings with an assigned support professional are one of the most useful tools for monitoring student-athletes' self-efficacy

status. According to Bandura (1997), "efficacy beliefs contribute significantly to level of motivation and performance" (p. 61). He emphasized that people need to learn rules and effective strategies for constructing effective courses of behavior, but even more importantly, they need to learn to apply these rules consistently and persistently. Failure or underachievement often reflect the "inability to regulate one's motivation rather than a deficiency of knowledge or basic skills" (Bandura, 1997, p. 84). Individual support sessions allow the support professional to function as a powerful persuasory source of self-efficacy and motivation through guidance activities which enhance personal, interpersonal, academic, and occupational self-efficacy. Specifically, weekly meetings provide the opportunity to (a) review and reinforce goal-specific academic contracts; (b) monitor class attendance, tutorial progress, and class performance; (c) reinforce study skills, time management, communication skills, and other coping skills; (d) discuss academic and occupational plans; (e) facilitate self-regulatory skills; (e) help students analyze task demands and situational circumstances; (f) teach students to exercise direct personal control and utilize resources to exercise proxy control when needed; (g) process insights gained from orientation course, career exploration sessions, and other scheduled activities; (h) monitor potential crises; (i) refer students to other campus resources and/or support organizations as needed; and, most importantly, (j) provide feedback and encouragement. These activities, especially if conducted on a regular and individual basis, can foster enactive experiences and, consequently, self-efficacy by increasing self-regulatory skills and generalizable coping skills, such as diagnosing task demands, constructing and evaluating alternative courses of action, setting proximal goals to guide one's efforts, and creating self-incentives to sustain engagement in taxing activities and to manage stress and debilitating intrusive thoughts.

The exact nature and extent of the structure provided for student-athletes should be adjusted depending on individual needs after the first semester. Weekly meetings may be changed to biweekly or monthly meetings for those who need less structure. Career orientation programs must include exploration of internship options, interviewing techniques, resume writing, etc. as student-athletes progress toward graduation. Effective facilitation and maintenance of a resilient sense of self-efficacy involve developmental issues of the young adult individual and, thus, must be seen as an ongoing process which aims to empower student-athletes to cope with increasingly complex issues as they near graduation and prepare for their careers and lives beyond college.

In conclusion, Bandura's (1986, 1997) construct of self-efficacy provides a useful tool for support professionals who work with student-athletes. Structured support programs which facilitate self-efficacy by providing individualized interventions that meet the special needs of this population will empower the student-athlete during the university years and beyond. Ideally, such programs must operate within an integrated system that represents the collaboration of the academic and athletics departments on campus (Etzel, Pinkney, & Hinkle, 1995). Effective programs must be comprehensive and developmentally progressive in order to provide appropriate support and improve the responsiveness of the environment. Bandura stated that "an optimistic sense of efficacy contributes to psychological well-being as well as to performance accomplishments" (1997, p. 74). Programs which focus on helping student-athletes maintain or increase their self-efficacy will produce more graduates who will lead accomplished, productive lives.

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CHAPTER 4

ESSENTIAL COMPONENTS FOR SUCCESSFUL COLLABORATION BETWEEN COACHES AND ATHLETIC ACADEMIC ADVISORS

Pam Wuestenberg

Because of different objectives and goals, many coaches and academic advisors find themselves on opposite ends of the court regarding academics and athletics. At times it has been difficult for both sides to come together to form a consensus on policies, discipline, and direction for student-athletes with respect to academic expectations. Adding to the difficulty of creating and maintaining consistent and collaborative relationships has been the constant changing of coaching and academic support staff personnel, National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) academic requirements, and direction and expectations of institutional administrations.

Athletic academic centers are faced with the changing environment of athletics due to the increase of NCAA rules and the cultural and socioeconomic diversity of their student-athlete population. Today's athletic academic centers have become complex organizations that require documented systems of operation to service adequately the needs of all student-athletes. Formulation of regulations and procedures will require a collaboration between coaches, administration, and athletic academic advisors. An academic philosophy, rules, procedures, and a line of authority will need to be established by the academic center staff with input from coaches and administrators.

Historical Review

There is very little research available on the historical relationships between coaches and academic advisors, perhaps because it is a relatively new partnership. Prior to the establishment of initial eligibility standards and NCAA requirements (satisfactory progress, degree progress, and minimum GPA for competition), very little was done on a university scale to guarantee that student-athletes were being educated. Graduation rates were not published, and the only minimum academic standard student-athletes had to meet to be eligible was maintaining a 2.0 GPA.

Traditionally, academic support programs for student-athletes were left up to individual coaches and their staffs. Head coaches were in total control of their programs, and quite frequently they relegated the academic responsibilities (tutoring, study

halls, and academic monitoring) to assistant and graduate assistant coaches. Many academic problems were not addressed or documented, and the student-athlete was left with little recourse but to survive on his or her own or struggle academically and possibly fail.

Television revenue and academic scandals in recent years forced a policy change for most institutions (Padilla, 1995). The various academic scandals and low graduation rates prompted the NCAA and the Presidents Commission to get involved in protecting the academic integrity of collegiate athletics. With the passage of NCAA Proposition 48 for initial eligibility and the NCAA athletic certification requirements of meeting minimum academic standards, a need for extensive athletic academic centers was created. Many institutions started with one academic advisor in a small room and have grown into complex academic support centers with specialized personnel, computer labs, and study and tutoring rooms.

Television revenue from the lucrative NCAA basketball contract gave much needed financial support to the development of the academic centers, increasing the effectiveness of the academic center and athletic advisor. Many new programs were created to meet the needs of student-athletes, and documentation of successful academic program strategies are now available (Berg, 1989; Gabbard & Halischak, 1993; Jordon & Denson, 1990; Lottes, 1991; Walter & Smith, 1986; Wittmer, Bostic, Phillips, & Waters, 1981).

Different Perspectives—Comparable Roles

As financial support increases, expectations and demands also increase for coaches and academic advisors. Both coach and advisor face feelings of stress and powerlessness as they try to meet the needs of student-athletes and the demands of college administrators, while fully complying with NCAA rules. There are times when the coach and the academic advisor find themselves on opposite benches in the same ball game because of their different perspectives on student-athletes. Traditionally, coaches work with the "athlete" while advisors work with the "student."

Coaches

For coaches of revenue-producing sport programs there is often a "win or perish" attitude (Schubert & Schubert, 1983). Coaches who are unable to create winning and revenue-producing programs are faced with unemployment. With the increased pressure to produce winning programs, many coaches rely on recruiting highly gifted athletes to accomplish this goal. Many of these recruited student-athletes have spent more time in the gym than in the classroom and subsequently enter the college academic arena with lower national test scores, lower high school GPAs, and weaker academic background experiences (Funk, 1991; Lederman, 1991).

Coaches will always focus more time on developing the athletic skills rather than the academic skills of student-athletes. Coaches will make difficult decisions based on athletic concerns regarding student-athletes, and these decisions will impact the available time and energy the student-athlete has left for academics. As coaches get more involved in the athletic life of the student-athlete and academic demands become greater, an increased need for more academic support for student-athletes becomes evident.

Advisors

Athletic advisors enter the field of advising because they enjoy working with the unique needs of student-athletes. They attempt to adhere to principles of academic integrity, but these principles can be compromised daily by "athletic eligibility" concerns. Sometimes they must help student-athletes make decisions for the purpose of athletic eligibility knowing this could compromise the student-athletes' academic progress.

Student-athletes must be academically eligible to participate in athletic competition or risk losing their scholarship and position on the team. Maintaining eligibility and academic progress is sometimes a contradiction, and many academic advisors find themselves crossing philosophical lines when attempting to help the student reach both goals. The

"majoring in eligibility" approach to academic advising causes many academic advisors to question their own ethics, philosophy, and dedication when these situations occur. The emotional toll for the advisor can be compared to the baseball coach who is required to put every player in the line-up for every game, a strategy that does not guarantee long-term success or meet the philosophy of competitive athletics.

Similarities

While philosophies and goals may differ, there are similarities in job structure of coaches and athletic academic advisors. Both are faced with seemingly impossible demands by many constituents (students, faculty, administration, community, etc.). They work long hours, have limited budgets, lack support personnel, and are challenged by the developmental needs of student-athletes.

The similarities should help to bolster an understanding of each other's role in the life of the student-athlete. Research has shown that student-athletes can suffer stress and emotional trauma over their dualistic roles as a student and as an athlete (Wittmer, Bostic, Phillips, & Waters, 1981), and conflicting authority figures add to the dilemma. A consistent and unified approach to athletic and academic expectations could help student-athletes to stay on track academically and athletically.

It is important to establish a successful collaboration between coaches and athletic academic advisors because of the necessary and desired outcomes of relationships with student-athletes. Creating a balanced and unified approach with a division of responsibilities should create an effective collaboration between coaches and athletic academic advisors who work with the same resource: student-athletes.

A harmonious environment can be created between coaches and academic advisors which encourages dialogue concerning issues that affect student-athletes. To create a successful collaborative relationship there are four essential components: (a) communication, (b) administration, (c) enforcement, and (d) accountability.

Communication

For successful collaboration, an environment must be developed which enables the sharing of ideas and responsibilities, and in which coaching and academic staffs are not threatened by each other's actions or philosophy. The advisor should recognize the coach as one of the primary reasons the student-athlete is attending the institution and therefore acknowledge that the coach has a stake in the academic performance of the athlete. Advisors should not feel intimidated by input from coaches (who may or may not have sufficient training in academic issues) and should attempt to solicit feedback from coaches on situations that affect their student-athletes.

In supporting the student-athlete, the academic advisor and the coach need to reach agreement on polices and priorities for meeting the academic needs of student-athletes. This collaboration may require a change of current policies and could prove to be difficult for coaches and advisors. Coaches may resist this change unless initiated by people perceived as friends, and this could be a challenging atmosphere for a new or insecure athletic academic advisor (Etzel, Ferrante, & Pinkney, 1991). Strong communication lines should be established based on trust, respect, and the desire to reach specified goals. Both the coach and the advisor will have to allow for input and ideas that may be new, challenging, and different from their philosophies. Communication strategies include the acknowledgment of respect, promoting a department-wide philosophy, creating an open discussion of issues and policies, and helping each other to grow professionally.

Respect

Respect for each other's expertise or domain is a necessary ingredient for the establishment of good communication between coaches and academic advisors. It is important for coaches to show respect for the advisor's "turf" and recognize the level of expertise that is required to run a complex organization such as the modern academic center. Advisors should recognize the value of having coaches support and provide enforcement of policies of the academic center.

"Without the support of the coach, we often lose some of our ability to guide, instruct and ultimately help student-athletes" (Bartolini, 1997, p. 85). While few coaches will have the extensive knowledge or up-to-date academic strategies of academic advisors, the coach will have the responsibility to enforce the rules and polices for his or her players.

Departmental Philosophy

Defining academic progress by institutional standards creates a structure from which the discussion of philosophy and policies can develop. Administrators, coaches, and advisors should be aware of all institutional rules regarding academic progress (probation and suspension policies, appeal processes, degree plan requirements, admission standards, departmental testing requirements, and graduation criterion). After understanding what is required of a student for academic progress by institutional standards, a sound and balanced departmental academic philosophy with realistic expectations should be developed by the athletic administrators, coaches, and academic advisors. This philosophy then must be communicated to all student-athletes and enforced fairly by all coaches.

Setting Priorities

The academic advisors, coaches, and athletic administrators must develop academic guidelines based on a departmental philosophy created to be consistent with available resources (financial and personnel) and meet the expectations of all involved. A discussion should involve prioritizing of the academic center's resources, as this will determine the financial support that is needed to budget adequately for services that coaches and advisors want to provide for their student-athletes. Concerns, such as (a) how many students need the services of the academic center, (b) how many students will be able to use the services, (c) how summer school is allocated, (d) how much money is available for tutoring, (e) how many students will need outside services, (f) who conducts study halls, and (g) whether at-risk students receive priority in services can all be addressed while setting the priorities and assessing the financial needs of the center.

Financial Considerations

Financial considerations are important in establishing the philosophy and direction of the academic center. Having grandiose ideas on a shoestring budget only leads to the burnout of academic advisors and the frustration of coaches and student-athletes. Attempting to create a "wholistic" program (Lottes, 1991) will require a sufficient financial commitment on a yearly basis, with possible costs totalling 10% to 15% of the athletic budget (Berg, 1989). As athletic budgets become tighter, determining how athletic money is spent becomes a bigger issue. It is important to have agreement between coaches and academic advisors on the commitment of adequate financial resources to continue meeting the academic, emotional, psychological, and career needs of all student-athletes.

Outside Support

Use of existing university services is a cost-saver and a way to increase the awareness of the athletics program, but it also carries a hidden cost which is allowing "outsiders" to have some input into the athletic domain. Duplication of assistance programs is not cost effective, yet many athletics departments are replicating services because of their fear of outside influence in athletic affairs. Many coaches and athletics personnel do not want to share control and are threatened by outside sources of assistance. Academic advisors must move slowly and develop rapport between the coaching staff, faculty, and administration, as they are the liaison between the athletic and academic departments on campus. This relationship must not be violated in the name of eligibility or any other athletic matter, as negative consequences could compromise a student-athlete's opportunity in the classroom.

Behavior Guidelines

There must be a "buy-in" factor for coaches when creating policies concerning student-athletes. Allowing coaches to have input into the establishment of policies of the academic center is also a way to guarantee coaches' support and enforcement of the academic program rules. Coaches will be committed to the goals of the academic center if they have helped to establish

the academic philosophy and behavior guidelines for their players. Research has shown that "the coaches' endorsement is critical to the success of the athletes using the programs provided by the academic support center" (American Institute for Research [AIR], 1988; Lottes, 1991).

A definition of appropriate behavior should be in place for all student-athletes using the academic center. All teams should follow the same rules and have the same academic expectations. Policies for expected academic behavior of student-athletes that are formulated and implemented with the knowledge and input of coaches are more apt to be enforced effectively. Policies that are discussed and agreed upon by academic advisors and coaches represent a unified approach within the athletics department towards the academic side of student-athletes. With input, coaches are "buying" into their responsibility towards enforcement of those procedures.

Program Awareness

Communication concerning the academic center's procedures also increases the coach's awareness of the services it can provide to student-athletes. For many coaches, tutoring and study halls have been the panacea for all academic problems of student-athletes. If these services were all that is required to ensure athletes' academic success (and unfortunately they are not), then the academic center would not function in a preventative mode, but more as a maintenance program. It would not build skills or develop new levels of knowledge, but instead maintain the present academic skills of student-athletes. A broad-based program should be offered that has as its goals the developmental, career, and personal needs of all student-athletes.

Assisting Coaches' Professional Growth

Many coaches are experts in their field, knowing what equipment to order, what drills to run, and what strategy to use in a game. Few coaches, however, have the time to keep current on recent research or new technology that can be used to assist student-athletes in meeting their academic demands. Advisors can contribute to the knowledge base of coaches by providing news articles, summaries of research studies, workshops, and small seminars to keep coaches updated concerning new academic strategies (Bartolini, 1997). Advisors are also crucial in providing details and explanations of any new institutional rules, mandated tests, or other academic requirements that originate at the institution.

Communication is the most important piece of collaboration as it lays the foundation for all subsequent action taken by the academic advisor in the administration of the academic center.

Administration

An athletic academic center at an average size Division I institution provides services to over 300 athletes, coaches, and administrators. Administering a broadbased and holistic program takes significant organizational skill and time, and this task is insurmountable without a systematic approach by the academic advisor. The organization and administration of an academic center should match the breadth and depth of its responsibilities. The greater the number of services the center is capable of providing, the higher the level of organization that is needed. Documented systems of operation will allow for a consistent approach to the management of the complex academic center and will also make efficient use of available time, resources, and finances.

Handbook

For effective administration, volumes of information must be provided to student-athletes, coaches, and administrators. Documentation of available services, procedures, and regulations of the institution and academic center can be developed into an academic handbook to be given to all student-athletes, coaches, and athletic administrators.

Included in the handbook should be all university, departmental, and academic center policies concerning student-athlete academic behavior. The following information should also be in the handbook: (a) schedules of academic center hours, (b) directors' hours, (c) appropriate phone numbers, (d) services available at the center, and (e) services available at other institutional facilities. The handbook should contain copies of all forms used (i.e., grade reports, class

schedules, study hall sign-in sheets, tutoring requests, advising forms, summer school documentation, registration forms, and eligibility and graduation documents). The handbook should also contain documented procedures for reporting negative academic behavior (and resulting discipline), timelines for academic progress reporting, certification spreadsheets, and other procedures such as fall, winter, and summer school registration, study hall and tutoring processes, and grade check procedures. The following are suggestions for implementing procedures that could aid in the administration of the academic center and provide information to student-athletes and coaches.

Documented Procedures

Sign in. Simple sign-in procedures should be required for all student-athletes at entry and exit of the academic center. Tracking student-athletes' use of the center will help in the monitoring of athletes, computer use time, meetings, tutoring, and study hall needs for the statistical analysis of center use. These reports can also help to create more financial or personnel support for the center if needed.

Academic behavior. Student-athlete academic behavior that should be documented includes: tardiness, rudeness, missing or skipping classes, inappropriate behavior in classes, missing study halls, problems with instructors, and other related negative academic behavior. The academic advisor should provide a weekly (or, if necessary, a daily) report to all coaches and athletic administrators concerning student-athletes academic behavior. Resulting discipline should also be documented.

Report timelines. Reporting potential academic problems in a timely manner is crucial for any organization that does not want to exist in a "crisis-mode" style of management. Establishment of reporting timelines will help in maintaining athletic eligibility for athletes, decrease the number of academic problems, lower summer school costs, and create a positive image of the athletic academic center. Coaches and academic advisors should begin discussions of the next fall's eligibility concerns as early as the second month of school. Athletes who are lacking hours toward the 24-hour rule or degree progress should be documented after first-semester grades are posted and prior to spring late-registration. This will enable the student to enroll in the appropriate spring and summer classes to meet fall certification requirements. If coaches are aware of eligibility problems, then they can make appropriate decisions regarding the renewal of scholarships, the recruitment of new athletes, and the disciplining/supporting of current athletes.

Computer certification. The academic eligibility of student-athletes is crucial to the development and maintenance of winning athletics programs. Student-athletes and coaches should always be aware of their eligibility status (75%-25%, 25%-50%-75%, GPA, etc.) far enough in advance so that preventive measures (summer school, changing classes, substitution by department, etc.) can be made. Using a computer spreadsheet with simple formulas, a projection of eligibility for each athlete can be documented and can promote suitable action to correct deficiencies in eligibility compliance. Conferring with deans, schools, registrars, certification officials, and instructors should be done by athletic advisors and not by coaches. Members of the university faculty and staff could perceive interference by coaches as threatening the academic standards of the institution. This should be avoided whenever possible.

The use of documented procedures, defining of expectations, and creation of an academic handbook can help the academic advisor reduce the number of problems at the center. More students can then be served with the information available (in a timely manner) to coaches, administrators, and student-athletes. However, expert administration is useless without proper enforcement of procedures and regulations, and it is more effective for the coach, not the advisor, to provide this component.

Enforcement

Enforcement of policies and academic behavior should not be a responsibility of the academic advisor as this would compromise his/her role as helper/mentor. Advisors risk putting themselves in the "enforcer" role and could destroy

the unique relationship they have built between themselves and student-athletes. Advisors who attempt to discipline student-athletes without the support of the coach run the risk of becoming an "outsider of little consequence with undetermined relevance to the student-athletes' reward system" (Pinkney, 1991, p. 123). By using coaches in the enforcement role, advisors can maintain a more personal relationship with student-athletes.

Athletic success cannot come at the expense of academic success for student-athletes. Coaches cannot develop winning programs if their athletes are always struggling for academic eligibility, have academic behavioral problems, and/or fail to remain at the institution for more than a year. Coaches should recognize the importance of their influence on student-athletes and academic advisors.

The head coach determines program priorities and direction. If a head coach is academically oriented, then the players will reflect that philosophy; if coaches do not get involved in the academic concerns of their student-athletes, they could be sending a very loud—though unspoken—message that implies academics are not important. Just as a coach would discipline a player for missing practice or not working intensely, so must the coach provide discipline for the athlete who demonstrates negative academic behavior or a "couldn't care less" attitude towards academics.

The "real" power over student-athletes comes from coaches (Bartolini, 1997), as they hold the "trump" cards of scholarships, team memberships, and playing time (Funk, 1991). It is a very tough decision for a coach to withhold an athlete from practice or a game because of academic reasons, but it is a decision that, in all likelihood, would only be made once in an athlete's career. The significance is not lost on the ranks when the coach disciplines a player by denying him or her the opportunity to practice or compete. As coach Bobby Cremins notes, "When a young man gets off the track from his academics, sometimes basketball must be taken away as a disciplinary measure" (Bingham, 1989, p. 16). Not many student-athletes are willing to risk their athletic careers for a missed class or poor behavior in study hall.

As stated earlier, the student-athlete expects his/her coach's involvement in his/her academic life (AIR, 1988), and the coach imparts the importance of academics to the athlete by providing guidance and discipline at appropriate times. Cremins describes the impact of a coach's involvement on a student-athlete's academic success when he makes the following claim: "I feel that my role as a coach is to provide the leadership necessary to help the student-athlete understand the importance of academic success" (Bingham, 1989, p. 17).

Quick discipline that is appropriate to the negative behavior is best applied by the coach. All students should be treated fairly and equally despite their impact on the athletics program. Having spent time discussing and formulating academic behavior rules, it should be easy for the coach to apply the appropriate discipline at the time of the offense. Waiting until after the "big game" to discipline a student-athlete, or dismissing the offense altogether, is stating loudly that academics are second to athletics.

If the advisor and the coach review the offenses and find for leniency or dismissal of punishment, then a short explanation should be given to team members. By taking this approach, student-athletes realize there are extenuating circumstances and that special treatment is not given to just one or two players. Creating an open discussion of all academic issues ensures better communication and understanding between coaches, advisors, and student-athletes.

Accountability

Responsibility for the effectiveness of the academic center rests with all parties involved—student-athlete, academic advisor, coach, and administrators. "If a student fails, the student is held accountable; so is the staff member assigned to him; so is the assistant coach; and finally so are the head coaches. Each person involved says, like Harry Truman, 'the buck stops here'" (Walter & Smith, 1986, p. 43).

Student-athletes are accountable for their own academic success: "A significant contributor to the academic problems of student-athletes is the athletes' failure to accept responsibility for their

scholastic endeavors" (Funk, 1991, p. 145). While it may be easy to place blame on teachers, coaches, or outside influences, each student must accept responsibility for his or her own decisions. Accepting a scholarship to an institution of higher education is an academic contract. Academic success is not only expected but required, and no student-athlete should enter into an athletic scholarship agreement who is not serious about meeting all the academic requirements of that contract. Academic advisors, coaches, and administrators must present this message to the student-athlete during the initial contact with that student-athlete.

Athletic academic advisors are accountable for providing systematic administration of academic advising, academic reporting, monitoring, and evaluation of academic support for all student-athletes. Documentation of academic progress, advising, reporting of negative academic behavior, and development of systematic procedures and policies are administrative responsibilities of the academic center and its advisors.

Coaches are held responsible for their student-athletes' academic behavior. The first step is recruiting student-athletes who have the potential to be academically successful at their institution. Coaches must provide the leadership for their student-athletes, demonstrate knowledge and concern for student-athletes' academic progress, and enforce the academic policies of the institution and department.

The athletics director must recognize the athletic academic center as the "front porch" to the academic community of the institution. He or she should be aware of all phases of the academic center including policies, procedures, programs, and resources. The athletics director is held accountable for providing departmental direction; involvement in the development of an athletic academic philosophy for all student-athletes; and providing the financial commitment necessary for sufficient academic personnel support, resources, and facilities.

The president of the institution must insist that athletics departments act in an ethical manner that is consistent with the institutional mission. The president should provide sufficient financial resources to support the academic services that are needed for all student-athletes. As more institutions allow "special admission" policies to exist for student-athletes, then institutions have a moral obligation to meet the academic needs of those students (Padilla, 1995). This could mean additional resources of supplemental instruction, more evaluational tests, remedial classes, and an increase in academic support services. The president must require that the athletic mission reflect the institutional mission.

Summary

Four essential components are necessary to develop collaborative relationships between coaches and athletic academic advisors:

- Good communication will enable the coach and the academic advisor to demonstrate respect for each other's role in the life of the student-athlete, create a departmental philosophy, set priorities, consider financial restrictions and needs, use outside support, establish behavior guidelines, develop a program awareness, and assist in each other's professional growth.
- Athletic academic advisors need to provide documented administrative systems which detail the operations of the academic center and provide timely and adequate academic support for student-athletes. Administration includes the creation of an academic handbook for student-athletes, coaches, and athletic administrative personnel, the development of systematic procedures for all athletic academic services for both student-athletes and coaches, and the defining of academic expectations and behavior of student-athletes.
- Enforcement of academic policies and discipline resulting from negative academic behavior should be the responsibility of the coaches. Academic advisors should not compromise their unique relationship with the student-athlete.
- Student-athletes, advisors, coaches, athletics directors, and presidents of institutions

share in the accountability towards successful academic progress.

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CHAPTER 5

STUDENT-ATHLETE WELFARE OR "WELFARE"?

Daniel Boggan Jr.

As intercollegiate athletics enters the 21st century, it is natural when reflecting on the vast changes in campus sports to wonder "What's next?" Over the past century intercollegiate athletics has enjoyed a tremendous increase in popularity and media attention on its way to becoming an extremely lucrative business in itself. During this rise to prominence, however, it seems that some of the original reasons behind establishing athletic competition between institutions of higher learning may have been forgotten. Initially these games were about having fun, securing bragging rights, getting physical exercise, building a sense of community, and fulfilling the competitive spirit. Today, however, these goals have become obscured by the heavy spotlight which now shines on college sports, leaving in need of exploration the question of what exactly are the principles meant to govern intercollegiate athletics. Are the present guidelines enough to foster the welfare of today's student-athlete, or is the current system an exploitative one, placing collegiate athletes on a kind of educational welfare by not providing them with a full opportunity to pursue their intellectual as well as physical development?

We should start any basic review of the goals of college sports by examining its current set of principles as outlined in the constitution that governs intercollegiate competition for National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) member conferences and institutions. The purpose of intercollegiate competition should be clearly articulated within the guiding principles listed below.

It should be noted that the first number to the left of the principle corresponds to the location of the Article (e.g., Constitution, Operating Bylaws, or Administrative Bylaws). The second number represents the section heading (e.g., The Principle of Student-Athlete Welfare). The numbers that follow pertain to "further subsections that assist the user in identifying the section content thus facilitating ready access to pertinent regulations" (NCAA Legislative Services Staff, 1997-98, p. ix).

Principles of the NCAA Constitution

2.2 *The Principle of Student-Athlete Welfare.* Intercollegiate athletics programs shall be conducted in a manner designated to protect and enhance the physical and educational welfare of student-athletes (p. 3).

2.2.1 *Overall Educational Experience.* It is the responsibility of each member institution to establish and maintain an environment in which a student-athlete's activities are conducted as an integral part of the student-athlete's educational experience (p. 3).

2.2.2 *Cultural Diversity and Gender Equity.* It is the responsibility of each member institution to establish and maintain an environment that values cultural diversity and gender equity among its student-athletes and intercollegiate athletics department staff (p. 3).

2.2.3 *Health and Safety.* It is the responsibility of each member institution to protect the health of and provide a safe environment for each of its participating student-athletes (p. 3).

2.2.4 *Student-Athlete/Coach Relationship.* It is the responsibility of each member institution to establish and maintain an environment that fosters a positive relationship between the student-athlete and coach (p. 3).

2.2.5 *Fairness, Openness, and Honesty.* It is the responsibility of each member institution to ensure that coaches and administrators exhibit fairness, openness, and honesty in their relationships with student-athletes (pp. 3-4).

2.2.6 *Student-Athlete Involvement.* It is the responsibility of each member institution to involve student-athletes in matters that affect their lives (p. 4).

2.3 *The Principle of Gender Equity* (p. 4).

2.3.1 *Compliance with Federal and State Legislation.* It is the responsibility of each member institution to comply with federal and state laws regarding gender equity (p. 4).

2.3.2 *NCAA Legislation.* The Association should not adopt legislation that would prevent member institutions from complying with applicable gender-equity laws, and should adopt legislation to enhance member institutions' compliance with applicable gender-equity laws (p. 4).

2.3.3 *Gender Bias.* The activities of the Association should be conducted in a manner free of gender bias (p. 4).

2.4 *The Principle of Sportsmanship and Ethical Conduct.* For intercollegiate athletics to promote the character development of participants, to enhance the integrity of higher education, and to promote civility in society, student-athletes, coaches, and all others associated with these athletics programs and events should adhere to such fundamental values as respect, fairness, civility, honesty, and responsibility. These values should be manifest not only in athletics participation but also in the broad spectrum of activities affecting the athletics program. It is the responsibility of each institution to:

1. establish policies for sportsmanship and ethical conduct in intercollegiate athletics consistent with the educational mission and goals of the institution

2. educate, on a continuing basis, all constituencies about the policies in 2.4-(a) (p. 4)

2.5 *The Principle of Sound Academic Standards.* Intercollegiate athletics programs shall be maintained, as a vital component of the educational program, and student-athletes shall be an integral part of the student body. The admission, academic standing and academic progress of student-athletes shall be consistent with the policies and standards adopted by the institution for the student body in general (p. 4).

Developing the Student-Athlete

Again, one of the fundamental goals of the NCAA is to "maintain intercollegiate athletics as an integral part of the educational program, and the student-athlete as an integral part of the student body" (NCAA Legislative Services, 1997-98, p. 1). The key issue for all of us engaged in college sports is making sure that we concentrate on supporting the student-athlete's educational development as a contributing member of the society of the institution and our society in general.

There is a concern particularly in Division I-A about the purpose of competition. Does Division I-A athletics really fit into the basic purpose of intercollegiate athletics? For the student-athlete's sake, the answer must be yes. The question that follows is, "Why must that be the case?"

First, the central element of intercollegiate athletics is the student-athlete. When we look at the broadest conceptualization of the college athlete, we need to remember that approximately two percent (basketball) or three percent (football) of these participants are going to engage in athletics competition for pay after the end of their eligibility at the university and college level. According to figures from the National Federation of State High School Associations,

> There were approximately 546,000 high school students playing interscholastic basketball in 1996-97. This means there were 156,000 seniors playing basketball (540,000/3.5 = 154,000; the figure 3.5 is used since some high schools are three years and some are four years.) Based on these approximations, 2.6% (or less than 1 in 35) of high school seniors will go on to play men's college basketball. Approximately 2 in 100 college seniors (two percent) will make it for at least one year in men's professional basketball. (NCAA Education Services/Research, 1997)

The numbers for football are just as astonishing as basketball.

> National Federation statistics show 958,000 high school football players during 1996-97, which works out to approximately 274,000 seniors. There are about 54,000 NCAA intercollegiate football players in the country, which means there are roughly 19,000 new freshman positions available each year. There were also about 11,000 college seniors to fill the 150 positions won by rookies in the National Football League in 1996-97. These figures indicate that seven percent (or 1 in 15) of all high school senior football players will go on to play college football (NCAA Education Services/Research, 1997). NCAA statistics show about three percent of college seniors (or 3 in 100) will make a team in professional football. (NCAA Education Services/Research, 1998)

One of the major concerns for every NCAA member institution should therefore be the successful completion of the total college experience by the student-athlete. The value of a college education is one of the best ways to measure success for all students. Further questions that need to be answered include:

1. Did the student-athlete secure knowledge and develop skills that allow her or him to be a better participant in the life of her or his family, the community, and the country?

2. Did the student-athlete have a good experience based on the required commitment of time needed to compete at his or her highest level?

3. Were the resources of the campus available to assist the student-athlete in meeting the challenges of his or her future?

4. Was there a culture of support on the campus for these young women and men who, on a daily basis in very visible ways, represent the institution?

Second, the university or college is a vehicle for competition; however, it is more than that—it is also the vehicle for educating the student-athlete as part of an overall educational strategy. The resources of the university need to support the student-athlete in the same manner as other students. There are retention programs that have been introduced by institutions across the country for the nonstudent-athlete. Those programs usually focus on assuring that this student is involved and supported in ways that enhance his or her chances to succeed. Similar initiatives have been steadily promoted for the student-athlete over the last decade, with an intensified effort occurring over the last four years through the NCAA and the Division I-A Athletic Directors' Association CHAMPS/Life Skills Program.

The underlying motivation for those efforts reflects a belief that the student-athlete deserves support in getting through college. Beyond the student-athlete's needs is the larger view of the needs of our increasingly complicated society. Addressing this need would require a total commitment by members of the NCAA to move forward an agenda that focuses on the welfare of

the student-athlete. At the center of that agenda is the success of the student-athlete.

The CHAMPS/Life Skills Program

The CHAMPS/Life Skills Program, identified by the NCAA Foundation as its number one priority for developing additional support, has five core components:

- *An academic commitment* that challenges the student-athlete as a part of the university community to commit to academic excellence. This program teaches time management skills and behavior that facilitates learning.

- *An athletics commitment* that also focuses on the need to do one's best to be the best. Even so, there is a need to balance time for both academic and athletics commitments. This is indeed a challenge given the time an athlete devotes to competition.

- *A commitment to personal development* that stresses the basics about knowing oneself, focusing on one's own values, and developing priorities which help to deal with the stress of athletics competition and academic eligibility. Learning to manage time, to take advantage of resources, to identify helpful study habits, and to understand personal motivation are all keys to collegiate success.

- *A commitment to career development*. When the cheers stop, what are the student-athletes prepared to do? They are now citizens in the larger community. How prepared are they? There must be a major effort to explore available career opportunities inside and outside of athletics. The importance of early discussion is key. Questions such as "What are your interests?" and "What are your options if Plan A isn't viable?" need to be asked. If we do not commit to this, the current system will have "welfare-like" effects on many student-athletes. The student needs to understand that education is a liberating force if it is attained. We need to underscore the value of college education. This is about empowerment for life, not about old-fashioned welfare—the idea that someone will take care of you. We need to have the student-athlete understand his or her larger role in society.

- *A commitment to public service*. Another part of the university is public service. Getting the student-athlete to think in terms of community service has been a focus of CHAMPS/Life Skills. It allows for a connection with a larger community. For those student-athletes who want to make a difference while they are in college, this component helps them to identify how to do that effectively given the other issues that also must be managed.

Time Management

It is this balanced approach (a comprehensive view of the student-athlete) that needs to be developed if we are to further enhance the success of our student-athletes who are on our campuses. There are 168 hours in a week. Academically, student-athletes spend about 12 hours in class, 24 hours studying, and 5 hours in transit to and from class per week, making a total of 41 hours. Athletically, they spend approximately 20 hours training and competing and 6 hours in transit, giving a total of 26 hours. These two totals combine to make 67 hours a week devoted to academic and athletic pursuits.

Now, let's assume the student-athlete goes out one night (four hours) to have some fun and relaxes on occasion (one hour per day for six days = six hours, ten total hours). Then there is personal hygiene (seven hours) and meals (21 hours). Add to that 56 hours for sleeping (eight hours per day). Now our total comes to 161 total hours per week, leaving seven hours left to spend elsewhere. It is this "other" category that must be managed and managed well.

Academic Standards

Another key issue for the NCAA and its members relates to Article 2.5 of the NCAA Constitution—the principle of sound academic standards.

Looking at the needs of the student-athlete before they get to campus is imperative. The college experience in and of itself should be an intellectual challenge. We should *not* apologize

for that. The issue of initial eligibility is crucial to the successful athlete as a whole person. The key to the successful student is being prepared to walk the halls of academe.

Eligibility issues will continue to be a part of the agenda of the 21st century, and certainly the issue of race raises its head when this discussion of eligibility takes place. The disparity between SAT scores among Asian, African-American, and Caucasian students seems common knowledge. Evidence of this disparity is presented in an article by Ponessa (1996) entitled "SAT, ACT Scores Up, but Racial Gaps Remain." The article releases the results from the two major college-admissions tests for 1996. Results show the following:

> White students scored an average of 526 on the verbal and 523 on the math, while Black students scored an average of 434 on the verbal section and 422 on the math portion. Native American students averaged 483 on the verbal and 477 on the math. Asian-American students scored an average of 496 on the verbal and an average of 588 on the math. (Ponessa, 1996)

The truth is the scores are different, and therein lies the problems. The answer to the question of why the difference occurs is complex and has historical, cultural, economic, and social class dimensions. What we must remember in all of this is that poor educational preparation is more often an institutional problem, not a racial intelligence problem.

Issues that relate to educational preparation are part of the problem which needs to be addressed. Of course we want student-athletes to be serious students, yet the interplay among race, gender, economic, and social factors is compounded by history and confounded by the dynamics of the 21st century. The central elements of our new reality are faster pace, greater economic disparity, and more diversity. In spite of those facts, the student-athlete, once admitted, must be competitive in the classroom. Thus, academic progress continues to be important. The student-athlete will move into the next century with all the baggage of the last century as well as all the potential pressure of leading the country to a better appreciation of competition, diversity, and service.

Expectations

Let's examine the current set of expectations concerning collegiate student-athletes. When a daughter or son is sent off to school, we expect that she or he will become a better student and a better student-athlete after four years of academic preparation and athletics competition. The lessons that student-athletes learn in the classroom and on the playing field should be mutually beneficial. Athletics is an extension of the educational mission of the schools, which should prepare student-athletes for life's challenges outside the realm of a structured system. This is a realistic expectation and should not fall prey to public opinion.

The graduation rates of student-athletes are being used as an indicator of success for each college or university athletics program. If we believe this to be true, then institutions of higher learning are meeting that objective as evidenced by the results of the *1997 NCAA Division I Graduation Rates Summary*:

> Division I student-athletes who entered college in 1990 mark the fifth consecutive class that met higher initial-eligibility standards. Student-athletes who entered college in 1990 graduated at a rate of 58% compared to a 56% rate for all students. This is the highest percentage differential between the two groups since 1986, the first year graduation standards were introduced. (NCAA Education Services/ Research, 1997)

The expectations will not be lessened; instead, they will become more intense. We expect the student-athlete to be a positive contributor to our community. The stories of student-athletes battering their girlfriends, behaving in a disorderly manner, binge drinking, gambling, and physically assaulting other students are becoming all too prevalent on college campuses. The term "student-athlete" does not give the athlete the right to abuse the opportunities and privileges afforded them by a scholarship. The responsibility of the student-athletes goes beyond

scoring the winning touchdown or sinking two free throws to win the game. They have the responsibility of being productive citizens in society and to give something back to a community that embraces them in victory and supports them in defeat.

We expect the student-athlete to be a leader and role model both in the classroom and on the playing field. Student-athletes must be willing to lead by example. They need to personify the principles that govern intercollegiate competition outlined earlier in the chapter. Student-athletes are expected to uphold a higher standard similar to administrators, teachers, coaches, and parents. We expect the student-athlete to be involved in community service as well. The NCAA has formed a number of programs that allow student-athletes to offer their services to the community. One of the programs already identified is CHAMPS/Life Skills. Others include the NCAA Youth Education through Sports Program and Clinics. Each program serves as a traditional conduit for lifetime learning experiences, provides support to the needy and less fortunate, and promotes citizenship in the community.

Conclusion

The demand for time, quick response, commitment, and excellence are all a part of these expectations. Yet we know that significant change needs to occur if we are to do better by the student-athlete on our individual campuses. The following program models that offer support to the student-athlete are important resources for improving athletes' collegiate experience:

- the academic study center
- the resources of an academic advisor
- the availability of tutors
- the availability of career counseling
- the availability of caring and nurturing adults

The end game, therefore, has to be about the acquisition of knowledge and skills that make student-athletes better participants and more productive members of our society. The challenge to all involved in the enterprise of college athletics is to make sure that we are producing people capable of thinking and of adding value to the life of our respective communities and the nation as a whole.

A college education is something of value. We need to reemphasize this fact. The student-athlete must not be shortchanged. To require the student-athlete to achieve his or her best in the classroom is no less than is required of all team members. We push for excellence; we stress accomplishment of our mutually held goals. We need those same skills that are developed on the fields and courts of America in the fabric of our communities.

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CHAPTER 6

NCAA CHAMPS/LIFE SKILLS PROGRAM: RESULTS OF THE HELP-SEEKING SURVEY RESEARCH PROJECT

Meg Murray

It has been estimated that approximately ten percent of American college student-athletes suffer from problems appropriate for counseling interventions (Hinkle, 1994). The common type of intervention for the college student-athlete is a combination of academic advising and tutorial programs. While helpful, these types of programs are limited in scope and address only academic needs. Special programs to provide a systematic method of evaluating the developmental level of the student-athlete should also be established. A combination of both academic and personal counseling will help avoid the omission of developmental steps that may cause, and in many cases has already caused, serious problems in the athlete's life (Sowa & Gressard, 1983).

In contrast to sport psychology, the focus of sport counseling is on the athlete's development as an individual, including personal and clinical issues associated with sport performance (Hinkle, 1994). Effective models and strategies for the implementation of sport counseling are needed that include programming for time management, goal setting, anxiety management, and one-to-one counseling. These programs should involve collaboration between coaches, administration, faculty, counselors, and those individuals to whom student-athletes rely on for assistance: friends, family, and teammates.

NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program

The NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program highlights many of the developmental needs of college student-athletes and is a major contributor to the growing body of literature on their special counseling needs. To validate the need for life skills programming for student-athletes on college campuses, the NCAA endorsed the Help-Seeking Survey research project.

Help-Seeking Survey

The Help-Seeking Survey was a 184-item self-report instrument. See the Appendix to this chapter for a copy of the Help-Seeking Survey. The Help-Seeking Survey instrument was developed using recommendations from the professional literature on categories of college

student-athlete help-seeking behaviors. Counseling psychologists, sports psychologists, and measurement specialists reviewed the survey items. A pilot test of the instrument using a small group of student-athletes at a Division I university in the Southwestern United States allowed for estimates of content and construct validity.

Data were collected from a convenience sample of 1,014 college student-athletes from the Division I, II, and III institutions participating in the NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program. The Help-Seeking Survey research project attempted to identify the concerns college student-athletes have regarding the seeking of professional help, the problems that they report, and whether or not they perceive seeking help as a negative attribute.

Five hundred and twenty-six student-athletes responded to the survey. The majority of respondents participated in football, men's or women's basketball, and women's volleyball. The Division I, II, and III ratio was 390:75:55. Additional demographic information collected from the study is found in Tables 1-3. Table 1 shows the gender breakdown, Table 2 the figures

Table 1
Gender of College Student-Athletes Completing the Help-Seeking Survey

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	262	49.8
Female	264	50.2
Total	526	

Table 2
Race/Ethnicity of College Student-Athletes Completing the Help-Seeking Survey

Race/Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent
White	303	58.3
Black	176	33.8
Hispanic	15	2.9
Native American	4	0.77
Asian	4	0.77
Other	18	3.5

Table 3
Sport Participation of College Student-Athletes Completing the Help-Seeking Survey

Sport	Frequency	Percent
Football	116	22.4
Men's Basketball	88	17.0
Women's Basketball	72	13.9
Women's Volleyball	127	24.5
Other Revenue	18	3.5
Unknown	8	1.5

on race and ethnicity, and Table 3 the breakdown by sport participation.

Results

Frequency distribution analyses on the Help-Seeking Survey indicated that college student-athletes experience three major concerns regarding seeking help. Nearly half (45.8%) of the respondents indicated that they do not seek help because they can handle their own problems. Two other popular responses were related to a lack of time and a fear of opening up to someone that they do not know. Table 4 shows the top three concerns that college student-athletes reported regarding their help-seeking behaviors.

One student-athlete made the following comment:

> "There are a lot of stress-related problems that go along with being a student-athlete, many of which you just choose not to get help for because there are just too many and you can't fix them all. Athletes tend to just endure a lot more than maybe we should."

Other reported barriers for seeking help were being shy and embarrassed, other students finding out about one's problems, and feeling weak.

Table 5 indicates the percentage of respondents who acknowledged one or more of 37 possible problems. The major problems that student-athletes face fall into the following categories: time management, stress, burnout, time constraints, fear of failure, and finances. Of the 37 possible problems to choose from, almost all were checked by more than ten percent of the sample.

College student-athletes seek assistance from four key groups or individuals: friends, family members, teammates, and their head coaches. The athletic counselor and/or a counselor outside the athletics department are infrequently sought out for assistance. The results of the Help-Seeking Survey revealed that of the 37 possible problems listed, the athletic counselor is consulted only for time management by 11% of the sample.

When asked whether or not they were satisfied with the assistance they were receiving for their problems, the respondents indicated that they were satisfied. Table 6 shows the levels of satisfaction college student-athletes report from their friends, family, teammates, and head coach.

The Help-Seeking Survey asked respondents to indicate when they would seek assistance. College student-athletes reported that they would seek assistance for 8 of the 37 possible problems listed. Table 7 shows the problems for which college student-athletes would seek assistance.

The respondents did not believe that student-athletes who seek help are weak. Sixty-six percent indicated that they would use help-seeking services if they were available to them; 50% of the sample indicated that they have wanted to seek help for their problems but have not done so.

Discussion

College athletes seem to be reluctant to seek professional help because of a number of concerns, excuses, and fears, all of which seem to be reinforced by the athletic culture. Several comprehensive studies by Bergandi and Wittig (1984); Carmen, Zerman, and Blaine (1968); Davie (1958); and Vaughn and Emener (1993)

Table 4
Concerns that College Student-Athletes Have or Have Had when Seeking Professional Help

Concern	Frequency	%
I can handle my own problems	241	45.8
There is no time	204	38.8
I'm afraid to open up to someone	149	28.3

Table 5
Problems that Face College Student-Athletes

Item	%
Time management	83.91
Stress	81.05
Burnout	62.11
Eating disorders	12.07
Alcohol abuse	8.43
Being responsible	38.76
Family difficulty	20.65
Taking care of business	37.52
Fear of failure	48.78
Poor athletic performance	36.95
Depression	27.39
Anxiety	35.92
Unreasonable expectations of coaches	25.10
Grade point average/failing classes	29.64
Connecting with others outside of sports	22.45
Eligibility problems	9.81
Boyfriend problems	15.17
Feeling left out	11.59
Time constraints	56.89
Self-confidence/worth	21.63
Choice of major/minor	27.12
Fear of success	16.32
Sexuality/sexual identity	4.15
Homesickness	27.09
Leisure needs	33.33
Termination of athletic career	15.75
Girlfriend problems	13.93
Personal demands	34.02
Emotional problems	20.91
Decision-making	28.28
Physical injury	35.36
Career choice	32.65
Anger	27.15
Managing my life	27.49
Financial problems	42.83
Transition to college	16.98
Dating	16.77

Table 6
Satisfaction of College Student-Athletes with Assistance Received from their Friends, Family, Teammates, and Coach

Individual	%
Friends	97.5
Family	97.0
Teammates	95.5
Coach	80.5

Table 7
Problems for which Student-Athletes Would Seek Assistance

Item	%
Grade point average/failing classes	54.4
Physical injury	50.2
Stress	49.8
Time management	46.6
Financial problems	46.6
Depression	43.9
Choice of major/minor	40.3
Eligibility	40.1

showed similar low rates of use of psychiatric services by college student-athletes.

One possible reason why college athletes do not often seek help may be that they spend most of their time in an environment in which they are viewed as objects to be controlled rather than as subjects who have feelings and needs. College athletes receive messages such as "be tough," "just do it," and "no pain, no gain"—messages that do not encourage self-awareness. The athletes' macho image often allows for unusual behaviors. Oftentimes, then, athletic culture is very protective and rewards student-athletes who prefer to be sheltered and supported by individuals found within the athletic system. In the end, many college student-athletes learn they need to be strong and that it is not okay to seek help from someone that they do not know. This is consistent with research reports by Petitpas and Champagne (1988) and Wittmer, Bostic, Phillips, and Waters (1981). One student-athlete commented: "More times than not, student-athlete problems aren't taken seriously and, therefore, are overlooked and remain unsolved. This is one major reason I try to handle my problems without anyone athletically related."

Another possible explanation for a lack of help-seeking behaviors on behalf of college athletes is that they feel pressure to uphold the public's perception that they are better, stronger, and healthier than the average student. The public holds the student-athlete to higher standards than the average student. This message is reinforced daily to the student-athlete through the media and his/her coaches.

The demanding schedule of the student-athlete becomes an excuse not to seek professional help. Coaches who typically have not established procedures that would increase the likelihood of student-athletes' making use of professional help-seeking support services reinforce this excuse. As one student-athlete explained, "[They are] asking too much of me with such little time."

Other student-athletes commented:

> "Student-athletes know people are available to help us, but how can they solve the problems that are inherent in the system, i.e., no free time? All of these create *stress*."

> "People don't understand sometimes the pressure put on athletes to perform well in everything. Coaches say education comes first, but I don't believe they really feel this way. No one understands burnout."

> "It's not that I have that many problems, but I need to figure out things about myself and my personal life first."

As the data indicate, college student-athletes seek help from four key sources: friends, family members, teammates, and their head coaches. One student-athlete commented: "I have never needed help, and what help I did need my coaches could provide." Do athletes seek assistance from these key individuals because they do not have access to other people? One athlete commented:

> "I believe that athletes are secluded in their own way, away from normal students. We live together, eat together, go to mainly the same classes, study at specified times, party together, date one another, and socialize together. The different universities keep us united so that we can become a stronger set, which hurts some people's social skills."

> "Most of them think that you are at the specific school to play sports. It is hard to find and talk to people when they see you as failures, or just cannot relate to you."

> "Our time restricts us mainly from 10 or 11 a.m. until 7 p.m. So unless events are early enough for us to participate in, all athletes will tell you they have no time, but can try to squeeze you into their schedules."

Membership on an athletic team supplies a source of friendships and understanding that might be less readily available to other students who are not members of such a group. However, such friendships and understandings are limited in their professional nature (i.e., due to varying degrees of maturity levels) and should not be equated to receiving professional help. One student-athlete stated: "It should be mandatory that student-athletes get counseling at least once a month." Surprisingly, very few of the respondents (10.5%) indicated that they seek help from a counselor outside the athletics department and even fewer indicated that they seek help from an athletics department counselor (0.19%).

Respondents indicated that of the 37 concerns listed, they typically seek assistance for only 8 of these items. College student-athletes seek help for financial problems, physical injury, stress, poor athletic performance, burnout, time management, fear of failure, and time constraints. The individuals who are assisting the college athlete for these problems are the same individuals they typically seek help from: friends, family members, teammates, and coaches. For assistance with injuries, the athletic trainer is mentioned.

The data on student-athletes' levels of satisfaction for the assistance they have received indicated that they, in general, are satisfied. However, as indicated earlier, college athletes do not tend to seek help for many of their problems. For those individuals they most frequently turn to for assistance, respondents expressed an overall satisfaction level above 80% with assistance given by friends, family, teammates, and coaches. In fact, for all individuals listed in the Help-Seeking Survey, levels of satisfaction were 60% or higher.

Not only are college student-athletes not seeking professional help for current problems they are experiencing, they also indicate that if they were to experience a problem they would not seek professional help. Of the 37 items to choose from, two were checked by more than 50% of the sample: grade point average/failing classes, and physical injury. Those items marked by 40% or more of the sample included, stress, time management, financial problems,

depression, choice of major/minor, and eligibility problems. Considering the reluctance that college athletes have towards seeking professional help, it is significant to note that 43.9% of the sample indicated that they would seek assistance for depression. The remaining items could fall into categories considered safe. For instance, stress, time management, and financial problems are reasonably clear-cut issues. Seeking assistance in these areas is very different than seeking assistance for depression.

Earlier we noted that college student-athletes tend to seek help and receive assistance from family, friends, teammates, and coaches. When asked whom they believe they *should* contact when experiencing a problem, respondents marked the same individuals as above, as well as an assistant coach (40.1%), teammate (57.2%), coach (62.4%), friend (81%) and family member (84.2%). Differences existed, however, in the percentages of college student-athletes who believe they should contact someone for help and from whom they actually seek help. For instance, 62.4% of the college student-athlete sample indicated that they believe they should contact their coach when experiencing a problem; however, 44.3% indicated that they actually do seek help from their coaches. This data suggests that, while athletes believe they should seek assistance, when problems arise, many choose not to do so. One student-athlete made the following comment: "I know that I could get help, but I really don't think I need it or am too lazy to do anything about it."

This study identified important daily concerns college student-athletes face that should be considered when developing a comprehensive support program for this population. Targeting programs for student-athletes that take into consideration the problems that they face and the environment in which they exist is crucial to developing a clear strategy for enhancing the psychoeducational development of student-athletes.

It is important to know that college athletes seek help from their friends, families, teammates, and coaches. The importance of relationships that athletes have with the above individuals cannot be overstated, and clearly training and support from families are important to student-athletes. Professionals in the athletic support field need to consider the development of a theoretical model that incorporates friends, family members, teammates, and coaches in the delivery of support services.

It is necessary to educate professionals who work with the college student-athlete population about the need student-athletes have for professional counseling. It is equally important for these professionals to encourage help-seeking behaviors among college student-athletes. As one student-athlete shared: [They] "need to let student-athletes know where they can go for help with all kinds of problems. Have coach stress there are these problems that always exist to make athletes feel less embarrassed or scared to get help."

Do college student-athletes perceive seeking help as a negative attribute? The final section of the Help-Seeking Survey was designed to determine the perceptions college student-athletes have about help-seeking behaviors. Respondents did not believe that student-athletes who seek help are weak; 66% indicated that they would use help-seeking services if they were available. Seventy-five percent of the college student-athletes surveyed believed that they were receiving as much help as they needed. Yet, over 50% indicated that they have wanted to seek help for problems that they have experienced and/or are experiencing, and 12.2% indicated that they are afraid to seek help. Eighty-eight percent of the college student-athletes sampled believed that help-seeking services are available to them. Much of the data reported was in direct conflict with information reported earlier and comments written by individual respondents. For example, while over 80% of the sample indicated that they were seeking help for these problems or would seek help, the "yes" responses were far less than 80% for each individual concern.

The following are comments made by several student-athletes:

> "Counseling should be publicized, encouraged more. Many students don't know it's available."

"If services were more readily accessible to athletes, I believe that they would be more utilized. There are help services available on campus, but they are not specific for athletes."

"I am not taking advantage of what is available."

"Student-athletes encounter *very* different demands than the nonstudent-athlete. For instance, a nonstudent-athlete who might have a cold or be exhausted does not have to deal with how to make it through practice without injuring him/herself. Thus, university-provided counseling services are not adequately versed in and do not adequately understand the role strain or role conflict of a student-athlete. These services, while well intentioned, are nonspecific."

Suggestions were made that could assist coaches and professionals in reaching the college student-athlete. One student commented:

"Coaches should get to know players as best they can on an individual level so they are able to tune in if an athlete is not him/herself and the coach may want to help or give options to seek help."

Several student-athletes commented about the importance of having a sport psychologist or counselor available:

"Just make sure that everyone knows that someone is available for counseling."

"It would be very beneficial to work with sports psychologists—individually and as a team. And have counseling more accessible."

"The access to sports therapists or counselors should be as great as that of trainers or doctors."

In summary, college student-athletes have reservations concerning seeking professional help. As a group, however, they indicate that they experience problems with several counseling-related concerns (i.e., stress, burnout, and fear of failure). For the problems that all college student-athletes experience, they turn to their families, friends, teammates, and coaches for help. Although the sample indicated several problem areas, the percentage of student-athletes that do actually seek help for problems is substantially lower than those who expressed a need for help. Interestingly, the sample indicated that they would seek assistance for depression. For these potential problems the respondents indicated they would seek out the same individuals mentioned above. Yiannakis (1981) pointed out that college student-athletes devote so much time and energy to their particular sports that they do not typically take the time to resolve normal developmental crises.

The results of the Help-Seeking Survey suggest that the percentage of college student-athletes that could benefit from professional counseling may be higher than reported in earlier studies. Hinkle (1994) reported that ten percent of the college student-athlete population suffers from problems appropriate for counseling interventions. The literature reported that college student-athletes are particularly at risk for experiencing various forms of developmental crises. The results of the Help-Seeking Survey suggest that assistance may be needed in the areas of stress, burnout, time constraints, fear of failure, and financial problems. The literature pointed out the difficulties that result from over identification with sports (Goldberg, 1992; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990). Close to half of the sample reported that they could handle their own problems. When student-athletes do seek help, they do not turn to professional counselors. Student-athletes seek help from teammates, friends, coaches, and family members.

Implications and Recommendations

The results of the Help-Seeking Survey research study validate the need for life skills programming for college student-athletes. Future research should address a way to evaluate the developmental stages of these students and then establish ways to provide theory-based support services which will assist them in developing more mature aspirations, interpersonal skills, and greater autonomy. One student-athlete

stated: "Most athletes simply get things handed to them. Teach them (us) how to be more responsible, independent and more focused on a long-term attainable goal."

In order to provide support services to college student-athletes that will help them develop as human beings, two things need to occur. The first would be to commit to establishing a life skills program on all campuses which house an intercollegiate athletics program and to work on creating a theoretical position concerning the developmental stages of the college student-athlete. The second would be to utilize this theoretical position to train counselors in the athletic-academic field and then model the delivery of life skills support services based upon this theoretical position.

As interest in providing additional types of support services to student-athletes has grown over the last two decades, athletic counseling has emerged as an area of specialization. Several schools now offer a master's degree in athletic counseling. One of the goals of these sports counseling training programs should be to provide preparation in general counseling skills as well as a thorough understanding of the unique needs of the college student-athlete. These unique needs should be placed into a theoretical framework so that each individual athlete can be better understood and assisted through his or her collegiate experience.

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Appendix

Help-Seeking Survey

The following survey takes five to ten minutes to finish and is completely anonymous. Please make an effort to answer every question as best you can. Once you have completed the survey, please return it in the self-addressed stamped envelope. Thank you very much for your participation.

The survey is divided into five sections:

I. Demographics

1. Student-Athlete: Yes____ No____

2. Class: Freshman____ Sophomore____ Junior____ Senior____

3. Transferred to current school within last year: Yes____ No____

4. Sport_____

5. Division: I____ II____ III____

6. Gender: Male____ Female____

7. Ethnicity: Caucasian____ Black____ Hispanic____ Native American____
Asian____ Other____

8. Age____

II. Concerns of the College Student-Athlete Regarding Traditional Counseling

9. What concerns listed below do you have and/or have you experienced regarding seeking professional help for problems? (Check as many as apply.)

____Friends will make fun of me
____Teammates will make fun of me
____I will be embarrassed
____I will feel weak
____I can handle my own problems
____I do not believe in counseling
____I'm shy
____I'm afraid to open up to someone I do not know
____There is no time
____Others will think I'm strange
____Nobody can help me
____Waste of time
____I do not know how to seek help
____Nobody will understand me
____Nobody I know has ever sought help before
____I do not know what counseling is all about
____I'm afraid others will find out about my problem(s)

III. Problems that Face College Student-Athletes

10. As a college student-athlete I have encountered the following problems: (Check as many as apply.)

	Very Much	Somewhat	A Little	Not At All
Time management	___	___	___	___
Stress	___	___	___	___
Burnout	___	___	___	___
Eating disorders	___	___	___	___
Alcohol abuse	___	___	___	___
Being responsible	___	___	___	___
Family difficulty	___	___	___	___
Taking care of my business	___	___	___	___
Fear of failure	___	___	___	___
Poor athletic performance	___	___	___	___
Depression	___	___	___	___
Anxiety	___	___	___	___
Unreasonable expectations of coaches	___	___	___	___
Grade point average/failing classes	___	___	___	___
Connecting with others outside of sports	___	___	___	___
Eligibility problems	___	___	___	___
Boyfriend problems	___	___	___	___
Feeling left-out	___	___	___	___
Time constraints	___	___	___	___
Self-confidence/worth	___	___	___	___
Choice of major/minor	___	___	___	___
Fear of success	___	___	___	___
Sexuality/sexual identity	___	___	___	___
Homesickness	___	___	___	___
Leisure needs	___	___	___	___
Termination of athletic career	___	___	___	___
Girlfriend problems	___	___	___	___
Personal demands	___	___	___	___
Emotional problems	___	___	___	___
Decision-making	___	___	___	___
Physical injury	___	___	___	___
Career choice	___	___	___	___
Anger	___	___	___	___
Managing my life	___	___	___	___
Financial problems	___	___	___	___
Transition to college	___	___	___	___
Dating	___	___	___	___

Others: Please specify. 1._____ 2._____
3._____

IV. Where Do Student-Athletes Seek Help

11. For the problems checked in question 10 I have sought help from: (Check as many as apply.)

____Coach
____Assistant Coach
____Trainer
____Teammate
____Friend
____Sports Psychologist
____Faculty Member
____Mentor
____Athletic Counselor
____Counselor outside of Athletics Department
____Family Member
____Clergy

Others: Please specify. 1._____ 2._____
3._____

12. In the blank space next to each item, please use the following codes to indicate those individuals who have assisted you with each problem you checked in columns "A Little, Somewhat, and Very Much" in question 10:

C = Coach
AC = Assistant Coach
T = Trainer
TM = Teammate
F = Friend
SP = Sports Psychologist
FM = Faculty Member
M = Mentor
ATC = Athletic Counselor
CL = Clergy
FAM = Family
AOC = Counselor outside of Athletics Department

____Time management
____Stress
____Burnout
____Eating disorders
____Alcohol abuse
____Being responsible
____Family difficulty
____Taking care of my business
____Fear of failure
____Poor athletic performance
____Depression
____Unreasonable expectations of coaches
____Grade point average/failing classes
____Connecting with others outside of sports
____Eligibility problems
____Boyfriend problems
____Feeling left-out
____Time constraints
____Self-confidence/worth
____Choice of major/minor
____Fear of success
____Sexuality/sexual identity
____Homesickness
____Leisure needs
____Termination of athletic career
____Girlfriend problems
____Personal demands
____Emotional problems
____Decision-making
____Physical injury
____Career choice
____Anger
____Managing my life
____Financial problems
____Transition to college
____Dating

Others: Please specify. 1._____ 2._____
3._____

13. Were you satisfied with the assistance you received for your problems from your (Please use a "Y" for yes and an "N" for no): Leave blank any individuals from whom you have not sought help.

____Coach
____Assistant Coach
____Trainer
____Teammate
____Friend
____Sports Psychologist
____Faculty Member
____Mentor
____Athletic Counselor
____Counselor outside of Athletics Department
____Family Member
____Clergy

14. Please check the types of problems for which you would seek assistance:

____Time management
____Stress
____Burnout
____Eating disorders
____Alcohol abuse
____Being responsible
____Family difficulty
____Taking care of my business
____Fear of failure
____Poor athletic performance
____Depression
____Unreasonable expectations of coaches
____Grade point average/failing classes
____Connecting with others outside of sports
____Eligibility problems
____Boyfriend problems
____Feeling left-out
____Time constraints
____Self-confidence/worth
____Choice of major/minor
____Fear of success
____Sexuality/sexual identity
____Homesickness
____Leisure needs
____Termination of athletic career
____Girlfriend problems
____Personal demands
____Emotional problems
____Decision-making
____Physical injury
____Career choice
____Anger
____Managing my life
____Financial problems
____Transition to college
____Dating

Others: Please specify. 1._____ 2._____ 3._____

15. If you were experiencing a problem, please check all those who you believe you should contact.

____Coach
____Assistant Coach
____Trainer
____Teammate
____Friend
____Sports Psychologist
____Faculty Member
____Mentor
____Athletic Counselor
____Counselor outside of Athletics Department
____Family Member
____Clergy

Others: Please specify. 1._____ 2._____ 3._____

V. College Student-Athlete Perceptions about Help-Seeking Behavior. Please respond to the following statements.

16. Student-athletes who seek help for problems are mentally weak.

Yes____ No____

17. I have wanted to seek help for the problems that I have experienced and/or am experiencing.

Yes____ No____

18. I am afraid to seek help for my problems.

Yes____ No____

19. Help-seeking services are available to me as a student-athlete.

Yes____ No____

20. If help-seeking services were available to me I would use them.

Yes____ No____

21. I am receiving as much help as I need.

Yes____ No____

Comments: Below, please let us know of anything that will help us meet the personal, social, academic, and career counseling needs of college student-athletes. (Use a separate piece of paper if necessary.)

CHAPTER 7

HISTORY OF THE NCAA CHAMPS/ LIFE SKILLS PROGRAM

Emily Ward

The concept of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Life Skills Program originated with the staff of the NCAA Foundation, a nonprofit fund-raising arm of the NCAA. In late 1992, the staff of the NCAA Foundation was considering the idea of creating a program that would assist the athletics departments of member institutions to provide life skills education to their student-athletes and, at the same time, allow the institutions and student-athletes to be recognized by the public for the positive impact each was having in the community. The concept was presented to the NCAA Foundation Board, and it approved the development of a program to be called the NCAA Life Skills Program. Funding for the development of the program as well as the first several years of its administration was successfully secured from several corporations that were already involved with the NCAA partnerships.

During this same timeframe, a separate organization, the Division I-A Athletic Directors' Association, was discussing a similar concept of its own—creation of a program that would emphasize the numerous positive aspects of collegiate athletics in an effort to balance some of the negative publicity that had been increasing over the years. When the Division I-A Athletic Directors' Association began its discussions, the president of the association was Cedric Dempsey, athletics director at the University of Arizona. Shortly after the discussion solidified the concept for a program called CHAMPS (CHallenging Athletes Minds for Personal Success), Cedric Dempsey left the University of Arizona to become the Executive Director of the NCAA. At Dempsey's urging, the NCAA Foundation contacted the Division I-A Athletic Directors' Association to discuss possible collaboration of their respective programs.

While these discussions were occurring between the associations, the NCAA Foundation held a series of focus group meetings that included, among other individuals, athletics department staff from five institutions that were judged to have highly developed student-athlete support programs already in place: the University of Arizona, East Carolina University, Georgia Institute of Technology, Ohio State University, and Pennsylvania State University. The purpose of these focus groups was to identify the issues that were pertinent in student-athletes' lives and that needed to be addressed through educational programming. The initial result of these focus groups was the identification of five areas of commitment for the Life Skills Program. These commitments were: the Academic Commitment, the Athletics Commitment, the Personal Development Commitment, the Service Commitment, and the Career Development Commitment.

Within each of these categories of commitment, topics were then identified for which educational and informational material would be secured or created.

A call for materials was distributed nationwide to professional associations, educators, and other professionals. The request asked for a donation of educational materials or information that would fit within any of the topic areas identified. The material that was shared with, and created by, the NCAA Foundation staff became the pilot version of the NCAA Life Skills Program.

In early 1994, an announcement was sent to all NCAA member institutions inviting them to become involved in the pilot year of the NCAA Life Skills Program. From this initial invitation, 46 institutions requested involvement in the Life Skills Program. Although the majority of the institutions were members of NCAA Division I, there were also representatives of NCAA Division II and Division III. In early spring of 1994, the NCAA and the NCAA Foundation decided to place the administration of the new NCAA Life Skills Program under the auspices of the Education Outreach staff of the Education Services group, within the NCAA national office staff. This was done to provide additional resources for the program, including a full-time administrator. A multi-day orientation for the first group of institutions to become involved in the program was held in mid-summer of 1994.

Upon the transition of administrative responsibility to the Education Outreach staff, a number of actions were taken to further develop the program and materials. All program material was evaluated for its ability to achieve identified performance goals for each instructional topic. A prioritization of topics was established to determine which ones needed to be rewritten with instructional design as the focus. Then the task of rewriting the prioritized materials from an instructional design perspective began. This was done in cooperation with a team of experienced instructional designers who molded the content with the desired design. This process took two years to complete, and as each topic was completed, all new instructional material was distributed to each participating institution with user training provided during annual conferences.

In addition, during this two-year developmental period, conversations with the Division I-A Athletic Directors' Association continued in an effort to create a partnership that would unite the fund-raising and public-relations capacity of the Division I-A Athletic Directors' Association with the program development strength of the NCAA. This partnership was formed, and the official program title was modified to become the NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program.

Definition of the NCAA CHAMPS/ Life Skills Program

The NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program is designed to provide student-athletes with education and experiences to assist them in maximizing their collegiate experience, in accomplishing a successful transition to their professional career, and in making meaningful contributions to their communities. The CHAMPS/Life Skills Program is based on the premise that student-athletes, by virtue of their involvement in athletics, have a difficult time accessing campus-wide student activities, programming, and experiences. In an effort to address this issue, the CHAMPS/Life Skills Program provides athletics departments with resources and guidance to help them assist student-athletes to engage more fully in the collegiate experience.

The purpose of the NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program is fivefold:

- to support the academic progress of the student-athlete toward intellectual development and graduation
- to build philosophical foundations for the development of athletics programs that are broad-based, equitable, and dedicated to the well-being of the student-athlete
- to support the development of a well-balanced lifestyle for student-athletes, encouraging emotional well-being, personal growth, and decision-making skills

- to engage the student-athlete in service to his/her campus and surrounding community
- to encourage the student-athlete to develop and pursue career and life goals

This purpose is supported by the mission statement of the CHAMPS/Life Skills Program:

> The NCAA is committed to a comprehensive program of life skills that provides educational experience and services in order to develop well-balanced lifestyles for student-athletes; to encourage growth in decision making, planning, and fulfillment of career and life goals; and to enhance the quality of the student-athlete experience within the university setting. (NCAA, 1995)

Contents of the NCAA CHAMPS/ Life Skills Program

Within each of the five commitment areas, topics are represented by one of two types of material, either instructional materials or program models. Instructional materials include a student-athlete workbook and an accompanying coordinator/instructor guide. Program models include materials that outline how a program is organized and administered successfully on a campus, as well as any worksheets or other related documentation. Various topics are supplemented with video tapes, audio tapes, and computer software that are also provided. In addition to materials representing the five commitments, there are Program Administration materials that are useful for the implementation of the program on campus. The Appendix at the end of this chapter outlines the content of each of the five commitments, as well as the content of the Program Administration materials.

The NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program is a comprehensive collection of program materials. Because each institution exists in a unique environment with different needs, the program materials allow institutions to select the topics they will include in their student-athlete programming. It is useful and therefore recommended that an institution survey its student-athletes, using either the CHAMPS/Life Skills Needs Assessment or some other institutionally designed instrument, to determine what the student-athletes identify as their programming needs and issues. This allows an institution to plan effective and desired programming for their student-athletes.

Implementation of a CHAMPS/Life Skills Program on Campus

On an annual basis the NCAA distributes a call for institutions desiring to become involved in the CHAMPS/Life Skills Program. This process includes the following steps:

- acceptance into the program
- designating a campus coordinator
- determining the program's administrative structure
- assessing the needs of student-athletes
- attending program orientation
- developing a strategic plan
- successfully implementing the program

The CHAMPS/Life Skills Program is provided to NCAA member institutions at no cost to the institution other than that of sending representatives to a program orientation.

Designating a Campus Coordinator

Once an institution has decided to become involved in the CHAMPS/Life Skills Program, one of the initial decisions that must be made is who will be responsible for the administration of the institution's program. Each institution involved is asked to designate a campus coordinator. This person becomes the contact between the NCAA and the institution for all issues involving the program. The institution is required to send a representative to a program orientation, and preferably that person would be the designated campus coordinator.

The campus coordinator can be anyone from the faculty or staff of the institution, although

thought should be given to individuals who are familiar with and to student-athletes. In addition, individuals with some degree of authority within the athletics department may have a more effective experience as campus coordinator.

Establishing the Administrative Structure

If the campus coordinator does not have a full-time assignment as coordinator for the CHAMPS/Life Skills Program, the institution might consider several options to create an effective program structure that does not overload the designated coordinator. The campus coordinator may be given the assistance of other staff or graduate assistants, or an administrative structure may be established that distributes the responsibility of different aspects of the institution's program to different individuals on an administrative oversight committee.

This type of administrative structure could involve a variety of individuals from the athletics department as well as other campus departments. Examples of the types of individuals from the athletics department who might be represented in this structure are athletic trainers, student-athlete advisory committee members, coaches, weight room staff/strength coaches, athletic-academic advisors, faculty athletic representatives, compliance officers, and sports information staff. Examples of the types of individuals from across the campus who might be represented in this structure are representatives from student affairs, residence life, health/counseling center, campus police, and interested faculty. Within this type of "administrative oversight committee," the designated campus coordinator may serve as the convener of the committee, and the committee members contribute their expertise, campus knowledge, and connections to facilitate programming in a designated specialty area.

Assessing the Needs of Student-Athletes

In order to provide the most effective programming, it becomes important to consider programming that will be positively received by the student-athletes. This can be done by assessing the needs of the student-athletes in one of several different ways. The CHAMPS/Life Skills materials include a needs assessment instrument that can be distributed to student-athletes and then analyzed by the campus testing or computing center. The campus testing center may also be able to assist an athletics department in creating their own customized assessment instrument. Through a needs assessment, the institution is able to identify topical areas about which the majority of student-athletes show concern or confusion. The needs assessment process can also indicate needs based on year in school, team affiliation, and any additional subgroups selected during data analysis.

NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills Program Orientation

The NCAA invites two representatives from each institution to a CHAMPS/Life Skills Program orientation. It is required that the institution be represented by at least one individual at orientation, although the second representative could be any key staff person who will be involved in the administration of the institution's program. The orientation is held over several days and addresses both the content of the program materials and strategies for use of the materials as well as the development of a strategic plan for starting the institution's program.

Developing a Strategic Plan

The development of a strategic plan for the first year of programming is crucial to ensure effective use of time and resources. The strategic plan should include a mission and a vision statement for the institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program. When developing the mission statement the task is to identify the purpose of the CHAMPS/Life Skills Program on a given campus. An answer to the following question should be kept in mind: How will our student-athletes' lives be different as a result of this program? The mission and vision statements can provide direction and clarification for all future decision making regarding programming, use of resources, and staff responsibilities. The mission and vision statements also provide the staff with a daily reminder of why the program is in place and what the operating values of the program are. After the mission and vision statements are identified, a one-year strategic plan

can be developed that supports the mission and vision by identifying goals for the first year of CHAMPS/Life Skills implementation. These goals will be most effective if they take into account the results of the student-athlete needs assessment results.

The actual process of developing a strategic plan can involve identification of specific programming goals and should answer the question: What will our successful CHAMPS/Life Skills Program look like? For each programming goal, the following should be identified: the person responsible for the work, the date that work will start and the projected finish date, the steps the individual will take to reach the desired goal, and the reporting and evaluation process. Also included in this process can be the development of an institutional identity for the program. This identity can include the institution's name, mascot, logo, or any other method that will tie the identity of the CHAMPS/Life Skills Program to the institution. After developing this identity the institution can create items (such as a logo, or informational videos and brochures) to generate program identification on campus and within the student-athlete population.

It is generally best to include all appropriate staff in the strategic planning process to ensure total agreement and support for the goals of the institution's program. While initially it may be easier to consider what the goals of the first year of the program are, a multi-year strategic plan should begin to be developed midway through the first year of programming.

Additional strategies should be addressed and identified prior to the start of the program implementation. Essential to the success of an institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program is the ability to inform and gain support from personnel from the following areas:

- coaches, athletic administrators, and athletic staff
- student-athletes
- faculty, staff, and administration
- the surrounding community

Successfully Implementing the Program

Successful implementation of the institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program hinges on the development of collaborations with other institutional departments and groups and with applicable alumni and community organizations. Many of the topics included in the program materials are also topics that are addressed in campus programming for the general (non-athlete) student population. By virtue of the time demands placed on student-athletes for athletic and academic requirements and the scheduling of those time requirements, most student-athletes find it difficult to access this general student programming. This does not indicate that they are not interested in or would not benefit from the programming, only that most general student programming is scheduled for times that student-athletes are engaged in their sport or academic requirements. Because the student-athlete has the same needs as the non-athlete student population (as well as some needs unique to the student-athlete population), it is useful to create collaborative relationships with campus areas that are responsible for these types of student programming. By creating such collaborative relationships, the athletics department can access the expertise and resources of other campus areas and avoid duplication of programming efforts resulting in inefficient use of personnel and campus resources.

Similarly, collaborations with community organizations and alumni may also prove to be very useful. Alumni may be helpful in career development programming, including mock interviews and job shadowing programs. Community organizations may be helpful in the development of service activities, as well as career development efforts and program facilitator expertise. The CHAMPS/Life Skills Program may be most effective if it includes resources outside of the athletics department, and such collaborative relationships may serve to open doors that benefit the athletics department in the future.

Long-Term Decisions and Actions

Once the institution's program is in place and functioning, there are some additional issues that should be considered for the successful long-term

growth of the program. The first of these issues is the need to evaluate existing programming and produce logical recommendations for the future. The CHAMPS/Life Skills materials include several different evaluation instruments that can be used; conversely, an institution may create its own evaluation instruments. It is important that evaluation is done on a regular basis and that the results are shared with staff and used to improve future programming. Over time it will become very important for an institution to be able to document the results of its CHAMPS/Life Skills Program. This might include the number of student-athletes served, student-athletes' perception of the value of the experience, and suggestions for improvements in future programming.

It may also be useful to identify a progressive curriculum of programming for student-athletes. This progressive curriculum would outline the experiences that each freshman, sophomore, junior, senior, incoming transfer, and student-athlete who has completed eligibility would participate in. A progressive curriculum allows the institution to identify those issues that are most important for student-athletes to address. This type of approach emphasizes long-term, proactive programming as the focus of the institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program, rather than reactive programming or one semester of required involvement out of the possible eight or more semesters that the student-athlete is enrolled at the institution. Because student-athletes may be experiencing different issues in their lives at different times, this type of approach can be very successful. At the same time, there may be some programming that is done on a sport-specific basis which will benefit from including students at different developmental levels. By considering both types of programming approaches, the institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program can provide effective, proactive programming that meets the individual needs of the student-athletes and the overall needs of the athletics department.

Challenges to Campus CHAMPS/ Life Skills Programs

There are additional, non-programming issues that may prove challenging to the successful implementation of an institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program. Foremost of these issues will be the student-athlete's time and enthusiasm. College student-athletes are limited by NCAA legislation to 20 hours per week of required in-season athletic practice activities. Additional time requirements that most student-athletes face, but that do not count toward the 20 hours per week, include physical therapy or training room time, academic study table and other required academic support activities, and community service activities. Add to these obligations the frequency of away contests that include travel time, and most student-athletes feel they have very little time in which they are free to choose their own activities. Often, when an institution introduces a CHAMPS/Life Skills Program, an initial response from student-athletes is concern that one more requirement has been placed on their already limited time. This is a legitimate concern and one that must be considered and addressed with student-athletes if there is a desire for them to participate actively in the program. There are a number of ways to schedule programming so that it may be considered less intrusive on the student-athlete's time. One effective method for finding solutions is to include student-athletes in the discussion, which can be done with representatives of the institution's student-athlete advisory committee, an organization whose existence is required by NCAA legislation.

The response of an athletics department's coaching staff to the institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program may also influence the enthusiasm of student-athletes. Whether through explicit statements or implicit actions, if the coaching staff does not support the concept of the institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program the student-athletes may feel pressure to exhibit similar attitudes and behaviors toward the program. On the other hand, if the coaching staff explicitly and implicitly supports the program concept and requirements, some student-athletes who were initially unenthusiastic about the program may exhibit more supportive attitudes. One key to gaining coaches' support for the institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program is to help them understand how the program can support their efforts through support of the student-athlete and the strength of using the

presence of the institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program as a recruiting advantage. It is also important to clarify for coaches that the program is not in place to take time away from team practices or authority away from the coaching staff. The support of coaching staffs can provide a significant endorsement for an institution's CHAMPS/Life Skills Program and can positively influence the response of student-athletes, athletic administrators, staff, and the campus community.

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Appendix

The Five Commitment Areas and Program Administration Materials for the NCAA CHAMPS / Life Skills Program

I. The Academic Commitment

Instructional Materials
- Study skills
- Goal setting and time management
- Grammar Tools software
- Writing Tutor IV software

Program Models
- Orientation and assessment
- Academic counseling and advising
- Tutoring and structured study sessions
- Registration in a meaningful curriculum
- Scholarship application
- Awards, honors, and recognition

II. The Athletics Commitment

Program Models
- A broad program of sports
- Coaching and support staff
- Departmental operations
- Support programs

III. The Personal Development Commitment

Instructional Materials
- Fundamental values
  - Values clarification
  - Understanding diversity
- Personal health
  - Nutrition
  - Too Fit to Quit: Preventing disordered eating
  - Establishing relationships and developing sexual responsibility
  - Developing self-esteem
  - Stress management
  - Alcohol choices and addictive behavior
  - Dealing with depression and grief
- Communications
  - Interpersonal communications
  - Media relations
- Social development
  - Walk the talk: Manners and etiquette for real life
  - Dealing with authority
- Fiscal responsibility
  - Agents

Program Models
- CHOICES Alcohol Education Grant Program
- Drug Education Grant Program

IV. The Service Commitment

Instructional Material
- Student-Athlete Certified Peer Educator Training Kit

Program Models
- Speakers bureau
- Play Active Sports Program
- Mentoring
- Peer Educational Counseling
- Student-Athlete Assistance Program

V. The Career Development Commitment

Instructional Material
- Career Development

Program Models
- Alumni career network
- Life after Sports Program

VI. The Program Administration

- Mission, Values, and Purpose statements
- Component instructional objectives
- Program assessment and evaluation instruments
  - Needs assessment
  - Content objective evaluation
  - Student-athlete evaluation
  - Materials evaluation
- Program support
  - Academic Coach Program
  - Faculty Fellows
  - Counseling student-athletes
  - Teaching consultation skills
- Strategic planning
- Program sponsors

CHAPTER 8

THE IMPACT OF NCAA PROPOSITIONS 48 AND 16 ON THE ACADEMIC PREPARATION AND GRADUATION RATES OF STUDENT-ATHLETES

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Academic success in college depends on factors that operate both before and after collegiate enrollment occurs. Although many of the chapters in this monograph address the transition experiences of student-athletes after they have initiated first-time enrollment in college, this chapter focuses on the relationship between measures of pre-college academic preparation levels and graduation rates. Emphasis is placed on how the results of National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Proposition 48[2] were used to design the subsequent increase in initial academic eligibility standards denoted as NCAA Proposition 16[3], and how the predicted impacts have compared with actual outcomes to date.

This chapter will begin by discussing the purposes and limitations of academic eligibility standards. In subsequent sections it will then provide an overview of Proposition 48 and the research program designed to measure its impact, followed by a discussion on the analytical basis for the implementation of Proposition 16. Finally, a comparison of the predicted versus actual impacts of Proposition 48 will be used to assess the likely impact of Proposition 16 on graduation rates and minority enrollments.

Initial Academic Eligibility Standards

Division I intercollegiate athletics programs operate in an extremely competitive environment. The recruitment of highly talented high school athletes is a significant component of competitive success. Pressures therefore exist for NCAA member institutions to admit prospective student-athletes whose academic profiles are lower than those of their non-athlete peers, especially in the "revenue-producing" sports of football and men's basketball.[4]

The tradeoff of academic preparation for athletic talent as a recruiting and admissions criterion creates a number of problems. A form of exploitation may result if student-athletes are induced through the recruitment process to attend institutions where they are unlikely

to be academically successful. In such instances, their athletic talents are used only until they no longer are able to meet specific degree requirements or the institution's minimum academic standards for continued enrollment. Also, substantial amounts of institutional resources must be devoted to academic support systems for these student-athletes that far exceed, in many instances, those generally available to the undergraduate student body. Finally, to the extent that such academic support systems are not sufficient to overcome the amount of remediation required, other (and possibly much less desirable) approaches to keeping student-athletes eligible for intercollegiate athletics competition may result.

Each institution could, of course, ignore the pressures for athletics success and recruit only prospective student-athletes whose admissions profiles are similar to those of its undergraduate student body. An alternative and only partially successful approach has been for the NCAA to establish common minimum academic standards to determine freshman eligibility for practice, athletically related financial aid, and competition at all member institutions. Such minimum standards, however, fail to reflect the diversity of academic missions among the institutions which adopt them, so that the common standards will be too high for some institutions and too low for others. Achieving the appropriate balance ultimately is more a political or social than a technical issue. If the NCAA standard is set too high, student-athletes may not be recruited even by those institutions where they could be academically successful. If the NCAA standard is set too low, many institutions would still be required to establish admissions exceptions policies, allocate additional resources for remedial academic support, or continue to take other measures to ensure continuing eligibility. The introduction of minimum academic eligibility standards also has significant implications for issues related to access to higher education opportunities, especially for minority student-athletes.[5]

A Brief History of Proposition 48

NCAA Proposition 48 was adopted in January of 1983 and implemented in stages at the beginning of 1986-87 academic year.[6] The new initial eligibility standard—applicable only to Division I NCAA member institutions—had three components: (a) graduation from high school, (b) a cumulative grade point average of at least 2.0 in a "core curriculum" of 11 high school courses (COREGPA),[7] and (c) a minimum TEST score designated as either total score on the SAT of 700 or a composite score on the ACT of 15.[8] A substantial education program was initiated by the NCAA to inform prospective student-athletes who were high school freshmen during the 1983-84 academic year, and subsequent classes, of the new requirements that they would confront as they entered NCAA Division I institutions during or following the 1986-1987 academic year.[9]

The Research Program

Immediately following the adoption of Proposition 48, the NCAA Research Committee designed and implemented a research program to assess the impact of the new eligibility standards. This project was denoted as the Academic Performance Study (APS). A stratified sample of NCAA member institutions was drawn over a five-year interval with the 1986-87 academic year—the implementation year for Proposition 48—as the midpoint of the sampling period.[10] NCAA member institutions included in each year's sample were asked to submit information on all of the scholarship (recruited) student-athletes who entered as freshmen in those years. This resulted in a pool of scholarship student-athletes who had entered NCAA Division I institutions both before and after the implementation of Proposition 48.

Information about these student-athletes was obtained for a period of five years following their initial entry into college. These data included high school grades, test scores, class rank, gender, ethnicity, sport, and other personal characteristics as well as the characteristics of the collegiate institutions they attended. Of particular importance was information about whether each student-athlete had graduated from the institution within five years (plus an additional summer, if required) of their initial enrollment. These data provided the basis for measurement of the relationship between

graduation rates (GRADRATE) and several measures of pre-college academic preparation levels. These estimated relationships provided the technical basis for much of the debate surrounding proposals to raise initial eligibility standards at the 1992 through 1996 NCAA conventions.[11]

The institutional characteristics of the 1984 and 1985 cohort components of the APS sample are provided in Table 1. Approximately 57 NCAA Division I member institutions were selected for inclusion in each of the five cohorts, but the rate at which institutions agreed to participate in the study varied from a low of 70% (in 1985) to a high of 96% (in 1986). Division I-A institutions were more frequently represented in each cohort than either of the other two subdivisions within Division I, and the great majority of each cohort was comprised of public institutions.[12]

The academic and personal characteristics of the student-athletes included in the APS cohorts also are shown in Table 1. Although the overall high school grade point average (HSGPA) and the 11 core course grade point average (COREGPA) increased only slightly beginning with the introduction of Proposition 48 in 1986, the mean values of the SAT and ACT scores increased somewhat more. Presumably, this increase was due to the minimum SAT and ACT requirements imposed by the new initial eligibility standard. The percentage of female student-athletes increased somewhat from the pre-Proposition 48 to post-Proposition 48 cohorts, but the percentage of freshman student-athletes in the revenue sports of football and men's basketball declined from an average of about 37% for the pre-Proposition 48 classes to less than 34% for the post-Proposition 48 classes.[13]

A Brief History of Proposition 16

Spurred in part by the work of the Knight Commission[14], the NCAA Presidents Commission sponsored and won approval for Resolution 58 at the January 1991 Convention. This proposal stated, in part:

> Whereas the data on the first five-year cohort (1984-85 through 1988-89) in the

Table 1
Characteristics of the 1984 through 1988 Cohorts of the NCAA Academic Performance Study

Classification	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Number of Institutions	57	56	57	57	57
Institutional Response Rate	82%	70%	96%	84%	75%
Divisional Classification					
I-A	21	18	19	21	18
I-AA	13	13	16	13	14
I-AAA	13	8	20	14	11
Institutional Status					
Private	17	7	24	17	14
Public	28	31	28	31	26
HSGPA	2.93	2.90	2.96	2.94	3.00
COREGPA	2.91	2.86	3.00	2.86	2.95
SAT	922	916	978	927	962
ACT	18.2	17.4	19.5	19.5	19.5
% Female	29.2	28.9	30.9	29.8	33.2
% Revenue Sport	37.8	36.1	34.0	34.1	32.9

Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1991, January). *NCAA academic performance study, Report 90-01*, pp. 10-13

> NCAA's study regarding the academic performance of student-athletes are now available for review and therefore can lead to informed decisions regarding desirable adjustments in the Association's legislation governing academic requirements for athletics eligibility . . .
>
> Now, therefore, be it resolved that the NCAA membership direct the NCAA Academic Requirements Committee to review the research data and to recommend legislation to strengthen the current NCAA requirements for both initial eligibility and continuing eligibility.[15]

At the time Resolution 58 was passed, GRADRATE information was available only for the 1984 cohort of the APS sample but similar information for the 1985 cohort became available several months thereafter. Even though these data constituted only about 40% of the total (five-year) sample of student-athletes, they represented the most important component of the entire study. This is the case because only the 1984 and 1985 cohorts were not subject to the censoring which occurred when Proposition 48 was implemented in 1986.[16]

Selection of Academic Preparation Measures

These data were used in various combinations to estimate the likelihood that a student-athlete would graduate within a period of five years. Logistic regression methods were employed because of the dichotomous nature of the dependent variable.[17] Each of the three academic preparation variables considered—COREGPA, TEST, and CLASSRANK—was found individually to be significantly related to GRADRATE.[18] When the COREGPA and TEST variables were both included in the GRADRATE equation, however, addition of the CLASSRANK variable did not further enhance to a significant degree the predictive power of the equation. Hence, the COREGPA and TEST variables were selected as the pre-college academic preparation measures to be utilized in formulating the new initial eligibility standard.[19]

Inclusion of other independent variables in the GRADRATE prediction equation improved the overall predictive power of the model. For example, a variable added to account for gender exhibited a statistically significant coefficient and reduced the unexplained proportion of the variance of the GRADRATE variable.[20] What became readily apparent, however, was that the addition of this and other such variables to the prediction equation would ultimately imply their use in the initial eligibility standard as well. If the goal of an initial academic eligibility standard is to classify student-athletes accurately into "eligible" and "ineligible" categories (based on the likelihood that the former would graduate within five years and the latter would not), then the addition of a gender variable would make it necessary to have separate sets of TEST and COREGPA standards for males and females. This approach was not further considered because a single eligibility standard for all entering freshmen was believed to be most appropriate.[21]

The next research issue to be addressed was how the initial eligibility index was to be constructed. Under Proposition 48, minimum COREGPA and TEST scores were established, and prospective student-athletes had to achieve both a COREGPA of 2.0 and an (unrecentered) SAT score of 700 (or an ACT composite score of 15) to be immediately eligible for practice, athletically related financial aid, and intercollegiate competition. Application of these "cutoff" scores to the distributions of TEST and COREGPA values based on the 1984 and 1985 APS cohorts revealed, however, that nearly all of the "screening" (i.e., ineligibility) effect was being achieved by the minimum TEST score, with the minimum COREGPA value exerting little additional effect. This was the case because the minimum TEST score value (SAT = 700 or ACT = 15) had been set at only one standard deviation below the mean, whereas the minimum COREGPA score (2.0) had been set at nearly two standard deviations below the mean.[22]

Given that both measures of pre-college academic preparation had been demonstrated to exert a positive and statistically significant impact on the GRADRATE variable, the decision was reached by the Academic Requirements Committee that these two variables should contribute equally to the eligibility (versus ineligibility)

decision. This was accomplished by selecting combinations of TEST and COREGPA values whose standard deviations (Z-scores) averaged to a given, predetermined constant.[23] This led to the formulation of an initial eligibility index in which lower TEST score values could be compensated for by higher COREGPA values.[24]

Rigor of the Standard

The final phase in the development of the initial eligibility standard centered on the rigor of the standard to be selected. One initial eligibility index exists for each predetermined average Z-score value selected. Smaller average Z-scores (i.e., those closer to the mean of the distributions) translate into more rigorous initial eligibility index values.[25] This is demonstrated in Table 2. For simplicity, a single COREGPA value is utilized (2.25) and the required TEST score is shown for increasingly stringent initial eligibility standards. As indicated, increasing minimum TEST scores are required to achieve higher standards. For example, an index based on an average Z-score value of –1.5 would require an (unrecentered) SAT score of 600, but an initial eligibility index based on a mean Z-score value of –1.0 would require an (unrecentered) test score of 800. Further, an index based on an average Z-score of –0.7 would require an (unrecentered) SAT score of 920.

The outcomes predicted to occur from increasingly stringent initial eligibility standards are illustrated in Table 3 for three hypothetical initial eligibility indices, based on average Z-scores of –1.25, –1.00, and –0.75. Had these standards been applied to the 1984-1985 APS cohorts, it is clear that more stringent standards would have increased the proportion of all student-athletes classified as ineligible. The estimated proportion of the total sample which would have been classified as ineligible increased from 19.7% to 26.5% to 35.0% for the $Z = -1.25$, $Z = -1.00$, and $Z = -0.75$ rules, respectively. Under each rule, the proportion of African-American student-athletes predicted to be ineligible was much greater than for White student-athletes.

Alternative Eligibility Standards

Numerous initial eligibility indexes were considered by the Academic Requirements Committee, and later by other groups. They include:[26]

Table 2
Initial Eligibility Requirements for COREGPA and TEST Based on Selected Mean Z-Score Values

Average of TEST and COREGPA Z-Scores	COREGPA	TEST
–1.5	2.25	600
–1.4	2.25	640
–1.3	2.25	680
–1.2	2.25	720
–1.1	2.25	760
–1.0	2.25	800
–0.9	2.25	840
–0.8	2.25	880
–0.7	2.25	920

Based upon an assumed mean COREGPA of 3.00 with a standard deviation (Z-score) of 0.5 and an assumed mean TEST of 900 (or ACT equivalent) and a standard deviation (Z-score) of 200. These calculations are similar to those provided in: National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1991, June). *A statistical analysis of proposed initial eligibility legislation, Report 91-03*, p. 10.

Table 3
Percent of Student-Athletes Classified as Ineligible: Three Initial Eligibility Rules Based upon Average Z-Scores

Group	Average (Z = –1.25)	Average (Z = –1.00)	Average (Z = –0.75)
Total	19.7	26.5	35.0
White	8.9	14.4	21.9
African American	51.5	62.2	73.5

Note. Based upon full-ranging intial eligibility indexes with no minimum TEST or COREGPA values.
Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1991, June). *A statistical analysis of proposed initial eligibility legislation, Report 91-03*, p. 8. The calculations are based on 3288 student-athletes included on the 1984 and 1985 APS cohorts.

- *Pre-Prop. 48:* the pre-proposition 48 standard of a 2.0 overall high school grade point average
- *Prop. 48:* the 1986 standard which required an unrecentered SAT of 700 (or ACT of 15) and a COREGPA of 2.0
- *ARC 91-94:* the index recommended by the Academic Requirements Committee (both originally in 1991 and again upon reconsideration in 1994) which provided for a full-ranging index based on an average Z-score of –1.00[27]
- *Prop. 16:* the index recommended by the NCAA Presidents Commission at the 1992 NCAA Convention which was based on an average Z-score of –1.00 but limited to index ranges between unrecentered SAT scores of 700 to 900 (or analogous ACT scores)
- *Prop. 16 + PQ Index:* one of two standards supported by the Presidents Commission at the 1996 NCAA convention based upon an average Z-score of –1.00 and limited to SAT values of 700 or above for qualifiers and to the 600-690 range for partial qualifiers. Under this proposal, partial qualifiers would be eligible for athletically related scholarships and practice (but not competition) during their freshman years.[28]

The relationships among these eligibility rules are depicted in Figure 1. Under the Pre-Prop. 48 rule, no minimum TEST scores or COREGPA values were required, so the eligibility standard would be depicted as the axes of Figure 1 (shown graphically as the two line segments J-O and O-H in Figure 1). Proposition 48 is depicted by the two line segments E-C and C-G: Eligibility required both a minimum COREGPA of 2.00 and a TEST score of SAT = 700 (or ACT = 15). The ARC 91-94 rule is depicted as the index line which extends from point J through point H, and exhibits no minimum TEST or COREGPA values. The original Presidents Commission's proposal—Proposition 16—is depicted by the line segment B-D so that the minimum "cutoff" COREGPA and TEST scores (of 2.0 and SAT = 700) which characterized Proposition 48 were retained under this eligibility standard. The Prop. 16 + PQ Index rule is depicted as the line segment B-D for qualifiers and A-B for partial qualifiers. This is the eligibility rule that ultimately was adopted and implemented in 1995 and 1996. The area below or outside of the line segment A-B-D contains combinations of COREGPA and TEST scores of prospective student-athletes who were classified as NCAA nonqualifiers.[29]

Several outcomes were assessed for each initial eligibility rule considered and are presented below. Based upon each of the specific initial eligibility rules considered, the 1984 and 1985 APS cohorts were classified into two groups: eligibles and ineligibles. Then, each of these groups was further partitioned into those who did and did not graduate within five years. "True Positives" are those who were classified as eligible and who graduated within five years, while "False Positives" are those who were classified as eligible but who did not graduate within five years. Similarly, those "True Negatives" are those who were classified

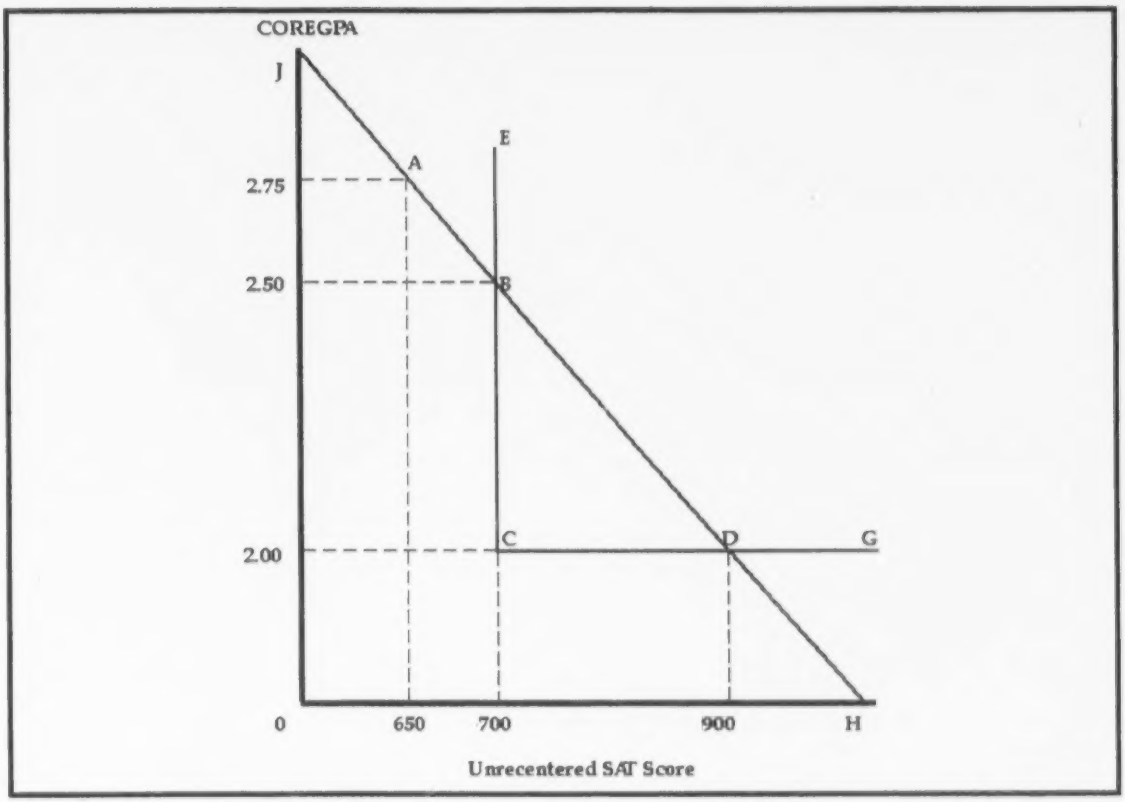

Figure 1. Graph of initial eligibility rules.

as ineligible and who did not graduate within five years, while "False Negatives" are those who were classified as ineligible but who in fact graduated within five years.

Total Sample (A)	Eligible (B)	Ineligible (C)
Graduated (D)	True Positives (E)	False Negatives (F)
Did Not Graduate (G)	False Positives (H)	True Negatives (I)

For any given eligibility standard, these outcomes were measured as follows:

- Pct. of Total Sample Accurately Classified = [(E + I)/A]*100
- Pct. of Total Sample Classified as Ineligible = [C/A]*100
- Pct. of those Classified as Ineligible who Graduated = [F/C]*100[30]
- Pct. of those Classified as Eligible who Graduated = [E/B]*100

Separate tabulations are presented in Table 4 for both the total sample and for its White and African-American student-athlete components. The separate results for each ethnic group are based on classification matrices similar to the one presented above which were separately constructed for White and African-American student-athletes.[31]

Table 4
Predicted Outcomes of Five Initial Eligibility Rules

Measure	Pre-Prop. 48	Prop. 48	ARC 91-94	Prop. 16	Prop. 16 + PQ Index (Final Rule)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
% of Total Sample Accurately Classified:					
Total	49.1	63.4	64.2	66.1	65.1
White	55.5	61.6	62.5	63.7	62.9
African American	30.0	68.8	69.3	73.5	71.6
% of Total Sample Classified as Ineligible:					
Total	0.0	25.6	26.2	31.0	27.5
White	0.0	12.4	14.0	17.2	14.5
African American	0.0	64.8	62.5	71.8	66.2
% of those Classified as Ineligible who Graduated (False Negatives)					
Total	0.0	21.9	21.0	22.6	21.1
White	0.0	25.0	25.0	26.2	24.8
African American	0.0	20.1	18.6	19.8	18.5
% of those Classified as Eligible who Graduated (True Positives)					
Total	49.1	58.4	59.0	61.0	59.8
White	55.5	59.8	60.5	61.6	60.8
African American	30.0	48.3	49.1	56.2	52.4

Source: *NCAA Draft Summary Report 94-01*. The tabulations are based on 3417 observations in the 1984 and 1985 APS cohorts. It should be noted that the False Negatives shown above are calculated as a percentage of those classified as ineligible, whereas in the original source the false negatives were expressed as percentages of the total sample.
Pre-Prop. 48 = minimum overall high school GPA of 2.0
Prop. 48 = minimum COREGPA of 2.0 and a TEST score of SAT = 700 or ACT = 15
ARC 91-94 = full index based on average Z-score of –1.00 with no minimum COREGPA or TEST scores
Prop. 16 = average Z-score of –1.00 with minimums of SAT = 700 and COREGPAs of 2.50 or above
Prop.16 + PQ Index = Prop. 16 for qualifiers plus partial qualifier status for those on the Z = –1.00 index line with SAT values between 600 and 690 (and corresponding COREGPA values between 2.75 and 2.50). This latter measure is denoted as the "Final Rule" in the remainder of this chapter.

Estimation of Effects of Different Standards

All of the APS study student-athletes who entered Division I institutions in 1984 and 1985 were eligible under the then-existing (Pre-Prop. 48) rule (see Column 1 in Table 4). As a result, by definition everyone was classified as eligible and (implicitly) predicted to graduate within five years. Of those classified as eligible (the total sample), 49.1% graduated within five years. Under the Pre-Prop. 48 rule, the graduation rate for White student-athletes was substantially larger than for African-American student-athletes (55.5% versus 30.0%).

Application of the Proposition 48 requirements to these cohorts resulted in the following predicted outcomes: (a) 63.4% of the total sample was accurately classified; (b) 25.6% of the sample was classified as ineligible; (c) of those classified as ineligible, 21.9% were mistakenly classified because they in fact graduated; and (d) of those classified as eligible, 58.4% graduated (see Column 2 of Table 4). Important differences may be noted between the results for the White versus African-American student-athletes. In particular, the percentage of African-American student-athletes classified as ineligible under Proposition 48 was more than five times greater than for Whites (64.8% versus 12.4%).[32] Of the group classified as ineligible, however, a smaller proportion of African-American than White student-athletes (20.1% versus 25.0%) were misclassified (because they actually graduated). Finally, it should be noted that, while the graduation rate for the total sample was predicted to rise by about nine percent (from 49.1% to 58.4%), the predicted increase for African-American student-athletes (from 30.0% to 48.3%) was much greater than for White student-athletes (from 55.5% to 59.8%).

Because Proposition 48 was already in effect at the time new initial eligibility standards were being discussed (between 1991 and 1995), each new proposal to increase academic standards was evaluated by comparing its predicted outcomes to those expected to occur under Proposition 48. The Academic Requirements Committee originally proposed (in 1991) and later reaffirmed its recommendation (in 1994) for a full-ranging index (with no minimum TEST or COREGPA scores) based on an average Z-score of –1.00. The predicted outcome is shown in Column 3 of Table 4. Compared with Proposition 48, the ARC 91-94 proposal would have (a) increased the percentage of student-athletes correctly classified from 63.4% to 64.2%, (b) increased the percentage of the total sample classified as ineligible from 25.6% to 26.2%, (c) reduced the percentage of those classified as ineligible who actually graduated from 21.9% to 21.0%, and (d) increased the graduation rate of eligibles from 58.4% to 59.0%. These results and those for the African-American and White cohorts of the total sample indicate that the ARC 91-94 standard would have had, at most, a modest impact on either graduation rates or minority access to athletics scholarships.

The NCAA Council endorsed the original recommendation of the Academic Requirements Committee, but the Presidents Commission adopted it (as Proposition 16) with one significant modification: The minimum TEST and COREGPA values which had prevailed under Proposition 48 would continue to apply the new standard. Compared with ARC 91-94, Proposition 16 (Column 4, Table 4) would have (a) increased the accuracy of classification for the total sample from 64.2% to 66.1%, (b) increased the percentage of the total sample classified as ineligible from 26.2% to 31.0%, (c) increased the misclassification of those classified as ineligible from 21.0% to 22.6%, and (d) increased the graduation rate of those classified as eligible from 59.0% to 61.0%. It should be noted that Proposition 16, compared with ARC 91-94, would have impacted African-American student-athletes to a far greater extent than their White counterparts. In particular, the proportion of African-American student-athletes classified as ineligible would have increased substantially (from 62.5% to 71.8%), as would the graduation rate of those classified as eligible under the higher standard (from 49.1% to 56.2%).

Compared with the then-existing Proposition 48 standards, however, Proposition 16 would have (a) increased the accuracy with which the total sample was classified (63.4% to 66.1%), (b) increased the proportion of the total sample classified as ineligible (25.6% to 31.0%), (c) increased the misclassification of student-athletes

classified as ineligible (21.9% to 22.6%), and (d) increased the graduation rate of eligibles (from 58.4% to 61.0%) (see Column 4 versus Column 2 in Table 4).

Although Proposition 16 was originally passed at the 1992 NCAA Convention (with an implementation date of August 1, 1995), it was extensively reconsidered during and after the 1994 NCAA convention. In June of 1994 the Presidents Commission endorsed a modified recommendation developed by the NCAA Academic Requirements Committee. This proposal retained Proposition 16 as the academic eligibility standard for NCAA qualifiers, but redefined NCAA "partial qualifiers" as those on the $Z = -1.00$ index line which corresponded to (unrecentered) SAT scores of 600-690 (or ACT equivalent scores). These newly defined partial qualifiers could receive athletics scholarships and practice, but could not compete, as freshmen.[33] This was the proposal finally adopted at the 1995 NCAA convention and is denoted as the "Final Rule."

It is important to note that a comparison of the impact of the Final Rule with the predicted outcomes associated with other initial eligibility rules (as summarized in Table 4) is complicated by the fact that the Final Rule includes NCAA partial qualifiers as "eligibles," whereas the initial eligibility standards discussed earlier did not. This is the case because, under the standards discussed earlier, partial qualifiers were not eligible for athletically related financial aid, practice, or competition as freshmen. Under the Final Rule, however, partial qualifiers became eligible for athletically related financial aid and practice (but not competition) as freshmen. Consequently, the comparability of the Final Rule with the initial eligibility rules discussed earlier depends upon whether it is access to athletically related financial aid (and practice opportunities) which are most important in the recruitment process for entering freshmen, or whether it is eligibility for competition which dominates recruitment decisions. Given that the partial qualifier definition was modified under the Final Rule specifically to provide additional access to athletics scholarships, particularly for African-American student-athletes, it would seem appropriate to at least assess the impact of the Final Rule relative to the other standards.

Compared with Proposition 16, the Final Rule was predicted to: (a) reduce the accuracy of classification from 66.1% to 65.1%, (b) reduce the percentage of the total sample classified as ineligible from 31.0% to 27.5%, (d) reduce the extent of misclassification of those classified as ineligible from 22.6% to 21.1%, and (e) reduce the graduation rate of eligibles from 61.0% to 59.8%. Compared with Proposition 48, however, the Final Rule: (a) increased the accuracy of classification from 63.4% to 65.1%, (b) increased the proportion of the total sample classified as ineligible from 25.6% to 27.5%, (c) decreased slightly the extent of misclassification of those classified as ineligible 21.9% vs. 21.1%, and (d) increased the predicted graduation rate of eligibles from 58.4% to 59.8%.

These findings indicate that the predicted changes associated with the revised initial eligibility standard—adopted after nearly five years of intense debate—may be modest, at best. Compared with the previous eligibility standard (Proposition 48), the largest predicted impacts of the Final Rule are likely to be experienced by African-American student-athletes, as measured by the proportion mistakenly classified as ineligible (a decrease from 20.1% to 18.5%), and by the proportion correctly classified as eligible (an increase from 48.3% to 52.4%).

Predictions Versus Outcomes under Proposition 48

The extent to which the predictions about the impacts of Proposition 48 were actually realized could provide some indication of the likely impact of the Final Rule discussed above. The actual impact of Proposition 48 on graduation rates is shown in Table 5. The graduation rates of student-athletes who entered Division I institutions in 1986 were consistently higher than those recorded by their pre-Proposition 48 (i.e., 1984 and 1985) counterparts. The overall graduation rate increased by six percentage points (from 48.2% to 56.5%), with a much larger increase recorded for women (from 56.3% to 69.0%) than for men (from 44.8% to 50.6%). The graduation rate for African-American student-athletes increased by ten percent (from 29.5% to 39.5%), and this increase was nearly double that recorded for White student-athletes (from 54.4%

Table 5
Actual Graduation Outcomes for the Academic Performance Study: 1984-85 Versus 1986 Cohorts

Group	Actual Graduation Rate: 1984-85 Cohort	Actual Graduation Rate: 1986 Cohort
Total	48.2%	56.5%
Men	44.8	50.6
Women	56.3	69.0
White	54.4	60.2
African American	29.5	39.5
Male Revenue	44.5	45.9
Male Non-Revenue	45.3	55.4

Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1993, August). *A comparison of college graduation rates of freshman student-athletes before and after Proposition 48, Report 92-01*, p. 8. These differ slightly from those presented in Table 4 for the pre-Prop. 48 graduation rate because the calculators presented above are based on 3,393 observations in the 1984 and 1985 APS cohorts.

to 60.2%). The increase in graduation rates among male student-athletes occurred primarily in the non-revenue sports.

More comprehensive information about the graduation rates of Division I student-athletes before versus after the imposition of Proposition 48 has become available from the *NCAA Division I Graduation Rates Reports*. Beginning in 1991, the NCAA began to publish annual reports which provided detailed information about all student and student-athlete graduation rates by gender, sport, and ethnic category for each Division I institution.[34] While the Division I graduation rate for all students increased steadily between 1984 and 1988 (by about one percent per year), the student-athlete graduation rate remained constant at 52% for the two years prior to Proposition 48, increased markedly to 57% in 1986 and 1987, and then increased to 59% in 1988. A similar pattern is found for the male, female, White, and African-American cohorts, with the largest absolute (and relative) increase being recorded for the latter group.

These actual graduation rate outcomes are reasonably consistent with the predictions developed from the Academic Performance Study. Whereas the *predicted* impact of Proposition 48 was that graduation rates would rise by 9.3% (as noted in Table 4), the actual increase for the 1986 APS study cohort was 8.3% (Table 5), and the actual increase throughout all Division I institutions was only 5% (Table 6).[35]

The fact that the actual increase in graduation rates for student-athletes was less than those predicted to occur could be accounted for by a number of factors:

1. The APS predictions assumed that only NCAA qualifiers would enter Division I institutions following the introduction of Proposition 48, yet nearly seven percent of the student-athletes who entered Division I institutions during 1986-87 were partial or nonqualifiers.[36]

2. The predictions assumed that qualifiers would be expected to achieve a minimum SAT score of 700 (or 15 on the ACT), but an "indexing" provision was established for the 1986-87 and 1987-88 academic years which permitted those with SAT scores as low as 660 to be considered qualifiers.

3. The prediction was based on a period of five years to graduate, whereas the *NCAA Division I Graduation Rates Reports* contain information on six-year graduation rates.[37]

4. A number of institutions (e.g., those in the Ivy Group and the Patriot League) were

excluded from the results available from the *NCAA Division I Graduation Rates Reports* because they did not offer athletically related financial aid and were therefore not subject to the graduation rate reporting requirements.

In contrast with the graduation rate predictions associated with Proposition 48, which tended to be reasonably accurate, the predicted decline in the percentage of African-American student-athletes in Division I institutions was overestimated in the analysis of the APS data. As was noted in Table 4, the introduction of Proposition 48 was predicted to result in an ineligibility rate of 64.8% for African-American student-athletes. In contrast with this prediction, the percentage of African-American student-athletes entering Division I institutions on athletics scholarships as freshmen declined by less than seven percent (from about 25% for the 1984 and 1985 APS study cohorts to 18.7% for the 1986 cohort), and had recovered to a value of 21.8% by 1988 (see Table 7). Furthermore, enrollment information for scholarship student-athletes from the *NCAA Division I Graduation Rates Reports* indicates a decline of only 3.7% from 1985 to 1986, and a slightly smaller decline from the 1984 entering class (see Table 7); these latter data also indicate that by 1989 the percentage of African-American student-athletes who were enrolled in Division I institutions on athletics scholarships was once again approaching pre-Proposition 48 levels. [38]

Why were the predictions related to ineligibility developed from the Academic Performance Study not fully realized when Proposition 48 was implemented? Three factors merit consideration. First, as previously noted, the predictions were based on a study in which the 1986 initial eligibility standards were imposed (hypothetically) on two classes (the 1984 and 1985 cohorts) which were not subject to those requirements. This methodology does not account for the fact that many student-athletes, when given sufficient advance notice of higher standards, would in fact be able to achieve them. Second, it is quite possible that those African-American student-athletes who did not meet the provisions of Proposition 48 in 1986 were replaced in the recruitment process by other African-American student-athletes who did meet the standards. Finally, it should be noted that the focus of recruiting activities among Division I institutions began to change somewhat from the high

Table 6
Graduation Rates of Division I Students and Student-Athletes

All Students					
Group	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Total	52%	53%	54%	55%	56%
Males	50	50	52	53	53
Females	53	55	56	58	58
White	55	55	57	58	58
African American	30	32	33	36	37

Student-Athletes					
Group	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Total	52%	52%	57%	57%	59%
Males	47	48	52	53	53
Females	62	61	67	66	69
White	59	59	62	62	63
African American	35	36	44	45	45

Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1997, March). *A longitudinal analysis of NCAA Division I graduation rates, Report 96-01*, pp. 9-14.

Table 7
Proportion of African-American Student-Athletes in NCAA Division I Institutions:1984-1985

A. Based on Academic Performance Study Data

Group	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
Total	25.4%	24.6%	18.7%	20.6%	21.8%

B. Based on NCAA Division I Graduation Rates Reports

Group	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Total	26.6%	27.3%	23.6%	23.4%	23.2%	25.0%
Men	30.8	32.0	27.7	27.6	27.7	29.3
Women	17.0	17.3	15.0	15.1	14.3	16.5

Source: A. National Collegiate Athletic Association. *A statistical analysis of proposed initial eligibility legislation, Report 93-01*, p. 7. These data relate to the proportion of scholarship student-athletes entering as freshmen who were African American.
Source: B. National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1997, January). *A longitudinal analysis of NCAA Division I graduation rates data, Report 96-01*, pp. 12-14. These data relate to the proportion of enrolled student-athletes who were African American.

schools to the nation's two-year colleges with the advent of Proposition 48. It is possible that a large number of the student-athletes who were recruited from two-year colleges were African-Americans. [39]

Implications of Proposition 48 Findings for the New Eligibility Standard

The implications of the analysis of Proposition 48—both predictions that have tended to be realized and those that have not—may provide insight into the likely impacts of the Final Rule which was fully implemented in August of 1996. Effects on graduation rates and minority enrollment patterns are considered below.

Impact on Graduation Rates

Based on the Academic Performance Study results, the introduction of the Final Rule would not be expected to have a significant impact on the graduation rates of recruited student-athletes. As previously noted (see Table 4) the graduation rate predicted under the Final Rule (59.8%) is only slightly higher than the rate predicted under Proposition 48 (58.4%).[40] Further, this conclusion would not be affected if the perceived appropriate basis of comparison was between Proposition 48 and Proposition 16.[41]

In fact, some additional increase beyond that predicted by the APS data will no doubt occur. The Final Rule required calculation of the COREGPA on 13 core courses, whereas all of the predictions developed from the APS data assumed that the COREGPA would continue to be calculated on the basis of only 11 core courses. Information was not available from the APS study to estimate the impact on graduation rates of an increase in the number of core courses upon which the COREGPA is calculated, and so this factor is not reflected in the Table 4 results. The additional two-core-course requirement, however, does constitute a significant increase in precollege academic preparation standards, so that those classified as NCAA qualifiers under the Final Rule would be expected to graduate at higher rates.

Another factor which will tend to increase graduation rates of recruited student-athletes beyond those predicted by the APS results is the introduction of the Initial Eligibility Clearinghouse. In 1994 the NCAA contracted with this organization, a subdivision of ACT, to determine initial eligibility for all Division I student-athletes. Prior to the introduction of the Clearinghouse, initial eligibility decisions, including decisions about which high school courses counted as core courses, were left for each institution to determine (within the guidelines

established by NCAA legislation). The Clearinghouse has standardized the definitions of core courses and has held many courses previously used by some institutions as core courses not to be acceptable for inclusion in the required 13 core course curriculum. This has produced a *de facto* increase in academic preparation standards and should result in higher graduation rates.[42]

A third factor not considered in the APS estimates has been the actions by several Division I athletics conferences to restrict the number of partial qualifiers or nonqualifiers participating in intercollegiate athletics.[43] To the extent that such conference-level restrictions, or perhaps even self-imposed restrictions introduced unilaterally by some member institutions in other conferences, discourage or eliminate the enrollment of those who do not achieve qualifier status, the predicted impact of the Final Rule on graduation rates may more nearly approximate those envisioned under the Proposition 16 (see Table 4, Column 5) which did not include a provision to allow athletically related aid to partial qualifiers.[44]

Impact on Enrollment Patterns

Based on the APS study results, it also appears likely that the Final Rule would not have a strong and negative effect on the enrollment of African-American student-athletes. The prediction that 66.2% of African-American student-athletes would be classified as ineligible under the Final Rule is only slightly larger than the 64.8% predicted under the Proposition 48 standard. Given that the decline experienced under Proposition 48 was much less than predicted, a similar result might be expected under the Final Rule as well.

This expectation is supported by evidence available on the enrollment of African-American student-athletes on athletics scholarships in the two years prior to the introduction of the Final Rule (1993 and 1994) and the two years during which it was actually implemented (1995 and 1996).[45] These data are provided in Table 8 and indicate, overall, only a slight decline in the enrollment of African-American student-athletes in NCAA Division I institutions. The average for the two years preceding the introduction of the new standard is 25.2%, and the average for the two implementation years is 24.6%. The largest decline occurred in the sport of men's basketball (nearly a four percent decline from 1993 to 1996), but for all other groups the decline appears to have been quite modest, and for some sports (e.g., football) increases actually occurred.

Conclusion

The methodology used to formulate changes in NCAA initial eligibility standards, the predicted impact of such changes, and the extent to which such predictions have actually occurred have been the focus of this chapter. A comparison of the predicted versus actual outcomes associated with the implementation of Proposition 48 (in 1986) suggests that the predictions associated with the implementation of the Final Rule (in 1996) may not be fully realized.

The predicted (positive) effect of the Final Rule on graduation rates is small, but may understate the actual result because of other factors which could not be evaluated within the context of the Academic Performance Study. These include the increase from 11 to 13 in the number of core courses upon which the COREGPA is based, the utilization by the NCAA of an Initial Eligibility Clearinghouse that enforces NCAA restrictions on core courses, and the actions by individual athletics conferences or institutions to limit the recruitment or enrollment of partial or nonqualifiers.

The predicted (negative) effect of the Final Rule on the proportion of African-American student-athletes participating in Division I intercollegiate athletics programs is very large, but likely constitutes an overstatement of the actual result. In particular, many African-American student-athletes will be able to meet the higher academic standards, especially over time as awareness of the new requirements spreads throughout the nation's secondary schools. Also, recent enrollment evidence suggests that in many instances those African-American student-athletes who were unable to meet the higher standards are being replaced in the athletics recruitment process by other African-American student-athletes who are able to do so. Both of these effects, however, operate outside of the framework of

Table 8
Enrollment of African-American Student-Athletes as a Percentage of Total Student-Athlete Enrollment in NCAA Division I Institutions: 1993-1996

Group	1993	1994	1995	1996
Total	25.3%	25.1%	24.9%	24.2%
Men	30.5	30.7	30.8	30.4
Women	15.6	15.2	15.0	14.7
Football	50.0	50.7	52.0	51.6
Baseball	7.0	7.3	6.9	6.5
Men's Basketball	64.6	65.0	62.6	60.8
Men's Track	28.5	28.4	29.6	28.2
Men's Other Sports	5.2	5.6	5.3	5.2
Women's Basketball	35.5	36.7	35.7	35.3
Women's Track	32.1	30.8	31.5	31.5
Women's Other Sports	4.7	4.7	4.8	5.0

Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1994, June). Division I Summary Tables. *1994 NCAA Division I graduation rates report.*
National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1995, June). Division I Summary Tables. *1995 NCAA Division I graduation rates report.*
National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1996, June). Division I Summary Tables. *1996 NCAA Division I graduation rates report.*
National Collegiate Athletic Association. (1997, June). Division I Summary Tables. *1997 NCAA Division I graduation rates report.*

the Academic Performance Study, and hence were excluded from the analysis of the APS data.

Endnotes

1. Appreciation is expressed to Ursula Walsh, Director of Research for the NCAA, and to Marilyn Dennett, Academic Eligibility Program Coordinator in the Office of the Faculty Athletics Representatives at Arizona State University, for helpful comments. The author assumes responsibility for any errors of fact or interpretation.

2. Proposition 48 was approved at the 1983 NCAA Convention and implemented at the beginning of the 1986 academic year.

3. Proposition 16 was approved at the 1992 NCAA Convention, extensively debated at the 1994 NCAA Convention and revised at the 1995 and 1996 NCAA Conventions.

4. See, for example, Jim Naughton, "Athletes Lack Grades and Test Scores of Other Students," *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (July 25, 1997), p. A43. This article compares the high school grade point averages and average scores on college entrance examinations of freshman student-athletes in the sports of football and men's basketball with analogous measures for all students who entered as freshmen. For the institutions whose athletics programs finished in the top 25 in the sports of football and men's basketball, the admissions profile of student-athletes was lower than that of entering freshman students generally. This tendency has been recognized for a number of years. For example, the 1983 NCAA *Report of the Select Committee on Athletics Problems and Concerns in Higher Education* concluded that:

> no matter how much attention might be given to such students once they are matriculated, there are a significant number of prospective athletes now being admitted to Division I universities and colleges who do not have the

> ability, preparation, or both to succeed academically at the institution that has recruited and accepted them (p. 8).

More recently, citing NCAA data, the Knight Commission reported that "at half of all Division I-A institutions, about 20% or more of football and basketball players are 'special admits,' i.e. admitted with special consideration." See *Keeping Faith with the Student-Athlete: A New Model for Intercollegiate Athletics*, Report of the Knight Foundation, Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics (March, 1991), p. 15.

5. Many spokespersons for African-Americans have strongly resisted higher initial academic eligibility standards for intercollegiate athletics, especially if they involve the use of standardized test scores. See, for example, the *Report of the McIntosh Commission on Fair Play in Student-Athlete Admissions*, (December, 1994) and the *Report of the Special NCAA Committee to Review Initial Eligibility Standards* by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (June, 1994).

6. Prior to the implementation of Proposition 48 in 1986, a prospective student-athlete was only required to have graduated from high school with an overall grade point average of 2.0 or higher to be eligible for practice, financial aid, and intercollegiate competition at Division I NCAA member institutions.

7. The 11 courses included three years of English, two years of mathematics, two years of natural or physical science, two years of social science, and two years of additional core courses in these areas or otherwise in the areas of foreign language, nondoctrinal religion, or computer science. A core course was rather loosely defined as a recognized academic course (as opposed to a vocational or personal service course) that offers fundamental instructional components in a specified area of study. Beginning in 1987, at least 75% of the instructional content must have been in the designated subject matter areas or in "algebra-based" statistics classes. See Bylaw 14.3 of *1997-1998 Division I Operating Manual*, National Collegiate Athletic Association, pp. 138-139.

8. The ACT test was revised several years later with a minimum equivalent score of 18, and subsequently 17, adopted in place of the composite score of 15 on the original test. In 1996, when the new initial eligibility index created by (a modified version of) Proposition 16 was implemented, the composite (average) score on the ACT was replaced by the sum of the subscore components. This provided for interval scoring that more closely approximated the scoring used on the SAT. Recentering of the SAT occurred in 1995, and this resulted in a new minimum score of 820 (as opposed to 700 on the unrecentered scale) required for NCAA qualifiers. All SAT scores referenced in this paper, however, are reported as unrecentered scores.

9. The adoption of Proposition 48 was accompanied by a great deal of controversy because it was viewed by some as racially discriminatory. Responding to these concerns, the NCAA appointed a Special Committee on Academic Research to investigate the likely impact of the new standards on minority student-athletes. The research results did indicate that African-American student-athletes would be more heavily impacted and, for this reason, the timing and implementation strategy for Proposition 48 was revised. Under this revision, a lower score on the SAT or ACT test could be compensated for by a higher core GPA. This indexing was used for only two years—1986 and 1987—and Proposition 48 became fully implemented, with both the core GPA and test score minimums, thereafter.

10. Details of the experimental design of the APS study are given in *NCAA Academic Performance Study: Report 90-01*, National Collegiate Athletic Association (January, 1991). Each of the 284 NCAA Division I institutions was assigned to one of five cohorts.

11. By way of contrast, the academic standards required under Proposition 48 apparently were not based on statistical evidence which related these or other academic preparation measures to graduation rates.

12. NCAA Division I institutions are subdivided into three categories. Division I-A encompasses those institutions which offer "high-profile"

football programs and generally commit greater amounts of resources to their intercollegiate athletics programs. Division I-AA institutions also offer football programs, but with a reduced number of athletics grants-in-aid, and operate their intercollegiate athletics programs at reduced budgetary levels. Division I-AAA institutions either do not sponsor the sport of football or otherwise do not offer athletics scholarships in this sport, but otherwise meet the financial and scholarship requirements to be classified into Division I. Division I institutions share a common philosophy statement. See Bylaw 20, *1997-1998 Division I Operating Manual*, National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1997.

13. The introduction of Proposition 48 may have caused some ineligible student-athletes in the revenue sports to attend two-year colleges where they could receive athletically related financial aid, practice, and compete as freshmen. After Proposition 48 was implemented, Division I institutions may have begun to recruit more student-athletes once from these two-year colleges. As a result, the number of freshman student-athletes on scholarship entering Division I institutions in the revenue sports would have declined.

14. In October of 1989 the Knight Foundation established a Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics with the charge to develop reform goals for college sports. The first report of the Commission, *Keeping Faith with the Student-Athlete: A New Model for Intercollegiate Athletics*, was published in March of 1991. The new model emphasized presidential control directed towards three specific goals: academic integrity, fiscal integrity, and independent certification of intercollegiate athletics programs.

15. Proposition 58, *Official Notice, 1991 NCAA Convention, 91st Annual Convention*, pp. 105-106.

16. Because the student-athletes in the 1984 and 1985 cohorts entered college before Proposition 48 was implemented, they were not subject to the higher initial eligibility standard. Beginning in 1986, student-athletes were required to meet the higher standard and, for the most part, only those who actually met the standard entered Division I NCAA member institutions. As a result, the 1986, 1987, and 1988 cohorts were censored in that they excluded prospective student-athletes who did not qualify under the Proposition 48 standard. It would be inappropriate to use samples censored by Proposition 48 to predict the effects of Proposition 48. Hence, the 1984 and 1985 cohorts became the focal point of research efforts to estimate the impact of Proposition 48 (and other initial eligibility standards) on graduation rates and minority access to athletics scholarships.

17. GRADRATE was measured as a dichotomous variable coded as "1" if the student-athlete graduated within five years, and "0" otherwise. Ordinary least squares regression analysis is not an appropriate estimation technique for equations in which the dependent variable is dichotomous. For this reason, logistic regression techniques were employed. For details, see *A Statistical Comparison of College Graduation of Freshman Student-Athletes before and after Proposition 48*, Report 92-02, National Collegiate Athletic Association, July, 1993.

18. COREGPA was computed as the highest cumulative grade point average earned in a set of 11 core courses which met the subject matter distribution requirements (e.g., three years of English). TEST was the highest total score earned from one or more SAT tests in which the highest subscore (verbal or mathematics) from one test administration could be combined with the highest subscore from some other test administration. TEST scores could have been earned by taking the ACT, and in this case as well the highest subscores from different examinations could be averaged to determine the highest possible composite score. CLASSRANK information was obtained from high school transcripts and was entered as the percentile ranking of the student's overall high school grade point average. Positive relationships were hypothesized between the COREGPA and TEST variables and GRADRATE, and a negative relationship was hypothesized between CLASSRANK and GRADRATE.

19. For technical details of the estimation techniques and results, see *A Statistical Analysis of the Prediction of Graduation Rates for College Student-Athletes*, Report 91-02, National Collegiate Athletic Association (June, 1991).

20. For further details, see *A Statistical Analysis of the Prediction of Graduation Rates for College Student-Athletes*, Report 91-02, National Collegiate Athletic Association (June, 1991), pp. 8, 19.

21. A related issue was whether, under the new standard, prospective student-athletes would be eligible at some Division I institutions and not others. All other things equal, the likelihood of graduation within five years would be expected to be much higher if student-athletes had pre-college academic credentials that would permit them to be more competitive with their non-athlete peers in the classroom. One approach to such an initial eligibility standard was explored by the Academic Requirements Committee. Under this hypothetical rule, prospective student-athletes would be eligible only at those institutions in which a student-athlete's SAT or ACT score was within one standard deviation of the mean score of all freshman students entering the institution in the previous academic year. Although experiments with this eligibility criterion indicated that higher graduation rates would result, this approach was determined to be inconsistent with the "level playing field" concept upon which so many of the NCAA's regulations are based. As a result, this type of eligibility standard did not receive further consideration.

22. Approximately 16% of the area under a standard normal distribution lies to the left of the point which is one standard deviation below the mean of the distribution, whereas less than three percent of this area lies to the left of the point which is two standard deviations below the mean of the distribution. Hence, an eligibility standard with a minimum requirement set at two standard deviations below the mean would cause many fewer students to be classified as ineligible than if the minimum requirement had been set at one standard deviation below the mean.

23. Z-scores are measured in standard deviation units about the mean of the distribution for the TEST and COREGPA variables. For example, the mean of the TEST distribution (as measured by unrecentered SAT scores) was approximately 900, with a standard deviation (Z-score) of 200. The mean of the COREGPA distribution was approximately 3.0 with a standard deviation (Z-score) of 0.5. A Z-score of –1 for the TEST variable would correspond to an (unrecentered) SAT score of 700 or a COREGPA value of 2.50. Hence, the establishment of a minimum COREGPA of 2.0 under Proposition 48 corresponded to a $Z = -2$ standard, whereas the minimum TEST value of 700 constituted a minimum score of $Z = -1$. It is apparent that, under Proposition 48, the minimum TEST score was set at a much more rigorous level ($Z = -1$) compared with the minimum COREGPA value ($Z = -2$), and hence the TEST variable was responsible for most of the "screening" effect of Proposition 48.

24. For example, if the index is to be constructed for an average Z-score of –1.0, then a COREGPA value of 2.50 ($Z = -1$) would be combined with a TEST score of 700 ($Z = -1$) for an average score of Z score of –1. A second combination on the same initial eligibility index would be a COREGPA of 2.0 ($Z = -2$) with a TEST score of 900 ($Z = 0$) for an average score of $Z = -1$. Other values on the initial eligibility index corresponding to an average Z-score of –1 may be calculated in the same manner.

25. Smaller average Z-score values would be those which corresponded to COREGPA and TEST score values closer to the means of their respective distributions.

26. In addition to the requirements listed, each of the initial eligibility standards discussed below required graduation from high school.

27. A "full-ranging" initial eligibility index is one that is not truncated with either minimum (or maximum) COREGPA or TEST score values.

28. This rule is the one actually implemented in August of 1996. It is based on Proposition 16 (passed at the 1992 NCAA Convention) as modified by Propositions 33, 34, 35, 36, and 36-1 at the 1995 NCAA Convention. The initial eligibility index itself was further modified by Proposal 17, passed at the 1996 NCAA Convention, which provided for a substitution of ACT sumscores for ACT composite scores.

29. Nonqualifiers were ineligible for practice, athletically related financial aid, and competition

as freshmen and were restricted to three years of competitive eligibility in Division I.

30. In this calculation, the proportion of False Negatives is computed as the percentage of ineligibles under a given initial eligibility rule. In several of the NCAA reports related to the Academic Performance Study, the proportion of False Negatives is calculated as a percentage of the total sample. See, for example, *A Decision Analysis of Initial Eligibility Rules Applied to 1984 Freshman Student-Athletes*, Research Report 91-3, National Collegiate Athletic Association (June, 1991), Table 1. The calculation in the text is based upon those declared ineligible (rather than the *t*otal sample) to indicate more clearly the error which resulted from classifying these student-athletes as ineligible. Division by the total sample compounds the effects of classifying student-athletes as ineligible and the misclassification error which results when ineligible student-athletes do in fact graduate. These effects are individually measured under the approach presented in the text because the percentage of student-athletes classified as ineligible under any given initial eligibility rule, and the proportion of those who were misclassified (because they graduated) are presented separately.

31. For example, the Table 4 statistic of 68.8% for African-American student-athletes indicates that 68.8% of the African-American student-athletes included in the 1984 and 1985 APS cohorts were accurately classified.

32. The very large proportion of African-American student-athletes predicted to be ineligible under Proposition 48 and other initial eligibility rules resulted from the lower levels of precollege academic preparation achieved by the African-American component of the 1984 and 1985 APS cohorts. Although allegations of a racial bias in standardized test scores surfaced periodically, there was no evidence of such a bias in the APS study results. Inclusion of separate variables in the GRADRATE equation to account for ethnicity, or attempts to interact such variables with the measures of precollege academic preparation, failed to yield statistically significant coefficients for any of the ethnic group variables. No evidence of a bias either for or against African-American student-athletes was uncovered in the analysis of the APS data. See *A Statistical Analysis of the Prediction of Graduation Rates for College Student-Athletes*, Report 91-02, National Collegiate Athletic Association, (June, 1991), pp. 8, 19.

33. Prior to this time, "partial" qualifiers were defined as those who were not qualifiers but who had graduated from high school with a cumulative GPA of at least 2.0. These partial qualifiers could not practice, receive an athletics scholarship, or compete as freshmen. The intent of the Academic Requirements Committee in recommending this new definition for the partial qualifier category was to extend access to athletics scholarships to an additional group of student-athletes whose low TEST scores (SAT scores between 600 and 690) were "compensated for" on the index line with COREGPA values of 2.75 to 2.50.

34. These data are especially important because they are census data and consequently contain no sampling error. Each NCAA Division I member institution is required to submit the requested information on all freshman student-athletes who entered on athletics scholarships during each of the years reported. As a result, these data provide stronger evidence of the impact of Proposition 48 on Division I graduation rates than that provided by the Academic Performance Study.

35. It should be noted, however, that the graduation rate outcomes for African-American student-athletes were well below those which were predicted. Whereas the increased graduation rates predicted from the APS data (see Table 4) was 18.3%, the actual increase for African-American student-athletes was only ten percent (see Table 5). These latter findings are consistent with those available from the *NCAA Division I Graduation Rates Reports*, which also indicate about a ten percent increase (see Table 6).

36. Under the provisions of Proposition 48, a partial qualifier was a prospective student-athlete who was not a qualifier but who had achieved an overall high school grade point average of at least 2.0. A nonqualifier was a prospective student-athlete who was not a qualifier and who did not have an average high school

grade point average of at least 2.0. Partial and nonqualifiers were not allowed to receive athletically related financial aid, practice, or compete during their first academic years of residence at the Division I institution they attended. Inclusion of partial qualifiers in the 1986 cohort would reduce the graduation rate predicted for this cohort because this group, on average, would have had a lower level of precollege academic preparation than if only qualifiers had enrolled.

37. Because of the additional year allowed to be classified as a graduate, the graduation rates reported from the *NCAA Division I Graduation Rates Reports* tend to be higher than those reported in the APS study data.

38. It should be emphasized that enrollment statistics are less likely to reflect immediate changes in the awarding of athletics scholarships to African-American student-athletes because these data include all undergraduate (and even some graduate) student-athletes (not just entering freshmen) who are receiving athletics grants-in-aid and who have eligibility remaining. By 1989, however, four entering classes had enrolled under the Proposition 48 standards, and so the enrollment information provided in Table 7 likely does reflect the changes in the proportion of student-athletes enrolled at Division I institutions who were African American.

39. It is important to acknowledge that the explanations provided above are conjectures that are consistent with the evidence available, but that other explanations also are possible. Because of the limitations of the APS Study, and the lack of supporting information from other sources, it simply is not possible to determine what proportion of the 1986 APS sample actually did meet the new eligibility requirements versus a substitution in NCAA Division I recruiting of student-athletes who did meet the higher standards for those who did not. The NCAA Division I Academic/Eligibility/Compliance Cabinet has indicated that in early 1998 they will begin to examine the eligibility statistics currently becoming available from the imposition of the Final Rule in August of 1996. See "Academic/Eligibility/Compliance Cabinet," *NCAA News* (September 29, 1997), p. 8.

40. The predicted effect of the new initial eligibility standards would be greater, of course, if the change from Proposition 48 to Proposition 16 was believed to provide the most appropriate basis of comparison. As noted in Table 4, the predicted impacts of Proposition 16, compared with Proposition 48, for all measures considered are substantially greater than for the predicted impacts of the Final Rule. Further, for each of the impact measures considered, the effects are greater for African-American than for White student-athletes.

41. The inclusion of partial qualifiers in the Final Rule calculations and their exclusion from those classified as eligible in the other initial eligibility rules once again should be noted. A comparison of the impact of Proposition 48 with the new eligibility standard based on full qualifiers only would require a comparison with the Proposition 16 results.

42. According to an NCAA press release issued following the inaugural meeting of the new NCAA Division I Board of Directors, the Board considered a proposal which would permit high schools to make determinations about which of their courses do or do not satisfy the requirements for core courses. The new NCAA Academic/Eligibility/Compliance Cabinet was directed by the Board to review this recommendation and to develop a comprehensive plan to implement the new approach. To the extent to which this new procedure will result in courses currently not accepted by the NCAA Initial Eligibility Clearinghouse to be classified as core courses, the impact of the Clearinghouse in maintaining academic standards would be reduced. This would tend to reduce the magnitude of the effect discussed in the text. See *NCAA News Release* dated August 13, 1997, p. 1.

43. In Division I-A, which contains the institutions that sponsor high profile football programs, the following conferences have imposed such restrictions: Pacific 10 Conference, Big 12 Conference, Southeastern Conference, and the Atlantic Coast Conference.

44. Two other factors, about which little information currently is available, could work to reduce academic preparation and graduation rates

of student-athletes. The first is the apparent increase in test score fraud, which recently was highlighted by Alexander Wolf, "Troubling: High School Athletics are Cheating to Meet the NCAA's Entrance Test-Score Standards," *Sports Illustrated*, July, 1997, pp. 70-79. The second is the rapid pace of grade inflation in our secondary schools, which Donald M. Stewart, president of the College Board, recently described as a "troubling trend." See "Average Scores on Admissions Tests Rise," *Chronicle of Higher Education* (September 5, 1997), p. A68.

45. As previously noted, enrollment statistics are less likely to reflect immediate changes in the awarding of athletics scholarships because these data include all undergraduate (and even some graduate) students who are receiving athletics grants-in-aid and who have eligibility remaining. Changes brought about by the imposition of the new academic eligibility standards in 1995 and 1996 would be expected to be first apparent in the ethnic composition of the entering freshmen classes, and these changes are more difficult to identify from enrollment statistics.

CHAPTER 9

COMMUNITY/JUNIOR COLLEGE TRANSFER STUDENT-ATHLETES: ETHICS, INTEGRITY, AND THE SECOND FIRST-YEAR EXPERIENCE

Karl Mooney

Community colleges, or two-year colleges as some prefer to be called, fulfill a needed position in the structure of American education. Whether they be a source of more personalized teaching, an opportunity to gain needed developmental/remedial course work, or a haven through which one can explore the ports and requirements of a future career, community/junior colleges are meeting their intended missions. Unfortunately, though, for some, the community college has become something other than what it was intended.

Perhaps no other group of individuals is so frequently perceived as misusing the educational opportunities offered by junior colleges than those involved in athletics programs. This group includes both the coaches and the student-athletes themselves. Among the accusations that so often fall on the shoulders of junior college student-athletes are (a) that they are looking for "easy" courses to get through the first year or two of college while they concentrate on developing their skill in a sport, (b) that they are simply looking for a place where they will get playing time, (c) that they are not at all concerned about their educational development, and (d) that they simply attend the junior college because—for whatever reason—they did not achieve the academic standards needed to qualify for immediate athletic eligibility as a freshman or transfer student.

It should be noted that many athletic administrators at community colleges are trying, along with their state and national associations, to change this perception. What were once the "easy" rules of junior collegiate athletics are giving way to standards that even the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) does not require. The National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA) has adopted eligibility rules that include minimum grade point requirements and earned credit for a specific number of semester/quarter hours added to the previous full-time enrollment standard. Other sports governing organizations such as the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA), the National Christian College Athletic Association (NCCAA), the California Community College Commission on Athletics (CCCCA), the National Small College Athletic Association (NSCAA), and the Northwest Athletic Association of Community

Colleges (NAACC) have taken similar steps to ensure that satisfactory academic progress is directly correlated with athletic eligibility.

For example, the NJCAA student-athlete must earn a 1.75 grade point average after an initial semester of full-time attendance. That same individual must also improve his cumulative grade point average to 2.0 before beginning a second year of athletic competition. At the same time, a semester average of 24 semester hours or 36 quarter hours has been created for continuing eligibility.

Still, other concerns persist. Course selection is an issue that may not receive the full attention of the junior college student-athlete until he or she prepares to transfer. Without proper course selection it is unlikely that the junior college student-athlete will be adequately prepared for the rigors of study in a four-year degree program.

Over the years many concerns have been raised regarding the course preparation of transfer students, the methodology employed to attain athletic eligibility immediately upon transfer to a four-year school, and the "quick fix" philosophy that some may apply to recruiting and retaining junior college transfer student-athletes. Despite recognition of these issues, little has been done to address the related ethics and integrity of those who promote these courses of action or the acts themselves. Even less attention has been focused on the junior college transfer student who is experiencing a second first-year experience. Careful consideration and promotion of corrective measures that encourage sound academic achievement while embracing the holistic concept of the "student-athlete" in these areas has been rare or focused only on exacting a penalty when the NCAA's or another governing body's objectives are not met.

The Issues and Concerns of Transition

Before we can prescribe a possible remedy for the existing concerns related to transfer student-athletes, questions must be asked and answered. First, what are the main transition problems faced by student-athletes who transfer to a four-year institution? What is the cause of these problems? Are they a result of Proposition 48 (NCAA Bylaw 14.5) or Proposition 16 (NCAA Bylaw 14.3)? Who is responsible for helping newly arrived junior college transfer students adjust to such a complete series of new circumstances? How successful have the existing programs been in easing the transition? Should these problems be a primary concern for recruiters when a prospective student-athlete is pursued for a commitment to an institution?

The issues of concern for transfer students are very similar to those experienced by first-year students. It is for that reason that some student affairs professionals have come to refer to the initial year of transfer as the second first-year experience. Common concerns facing the first-year transfer student include (a) academic preparation, (b) future academic opportunities and performance, (c) moving to a new community and school, (d) acceptance by new teammates and coaches, (e) athletic performance, and (f) finances. However, partly because the transfer student is older than the typical first-year student-athlete at a four-year institution, he or she may have some additional concerns. Among them are those related to being married and having children; the need for federal, county, or state financial assistance or services; and immediate employment opportunities and indecision regarding a major field of study and impending career choices. Unless these issues are addressed and the transfer student is taught the necessary skills and coping mechanisms to deal with them, the transition to a four-year setting may become the beginning of the end of the student's academic and athletic careers.

Many coaches and academic advisors can recall with clarity a junior college transfer student who, filled with worry and concern for family members left behind, has been unable to achieve the level of academic and athletic success that was seen and documented during his or her previous years. Typically, the adjustment to the new institution needs to be completed by the end of the eighth week (second month) of the first term in residence at that school. It has been observed that failure to address those needs within such a time period will cause the transfer student to make some critical, improper decisions. Such decisions often prove to be costly and require an inordinate amount of effort and

time to rectify. Failing to attend class and tutorials, trying to work additional hours to provide for family needs, reducing one's sleep or meals, using drugs or other stimulants, skipping practice, or being sexually active are behaviors that can have obvious negative results. Therefore, issues of potential concern should be identified and, if possible, resolved even before the student's arrival on campus. By doing so, distractions and worries will be diminished, and the likelihood that students will achieve their academic and athletic goals and potential will be enhanced.

The NCAA's Proposition 48 and Proposition 16 did raise the academic bar. It is fair to say that the standards of these new rules, which have been emulated to some degree by most of the other collegiate sports governing organizations, have exacerbated some of the transitional problems facing transferring junior college student-athletes. The majority of the other nonacademic concerns existed long before these two regulations were even considered. Therefore, academic standards contribute to, but are not solely responsible for, any perceived increase of transitional dilemmas for this group.

Prior to 1975, the academic issues to be addressed in order to achieve immediate eligibility upon transfer were very limited. Ten years later, the junior college student-athlete who was transferring into a NCAA member institution was faced with the requirements of having a 2.0 cumulative grade point average and no less than 24 semester or 36 quarter transferable hours for each year of full-time collegiate studies. Today, the student must be concerned with these issues as well as with (a) which set of rules to follow, (b) core curriculum and higher initial eligibility standards, (c) the availability and declaration of a major field of study, (d) an earned percentage of degree completion, (e) passing a basic skills test (in some states), and (f) the uncertainty of being able to prepare to attend a specific four-year school. Add these to problems faced by all other students, and it is no wonder why the junior college transfer student-athlete is prone to worry.

Perhaps the dominant factor underlying these issues for the transferring junior college student-athlete is the evolution of college sports into something it was never intended to be—a high-stakes business. This unfettered metamorphosis has created lures, pressures, and temptations unlike anything student-athletes or coaches have ever faced before. Prestige, notoriety, and celebrity are easily and sometimes unavoidably attained by college players on any campus, but fame makes it difficult for students to develop the character, knowledge, and maturity that a college experience is supposed to provide. As repeatedly reported by the media, some people outside the immediate college sports community make regular attempts to undermine what should be positive aspects of intercollegiate sports. The recently uncovered point-shaving at a southwestern university is just one example of such misguided interference.

So often the junior college transfer is labeled as the "quick fix" or "the player who will be the final piece in the puzzle" in the team's success. When such expectations are placed on the community college transfer student who is already trying to deal with a new situation from so many different angles, the pressures are compounded. Academics, family, finances, athletic expectations, and performance can combine to create impossible pressures that most will handle with only partial success. While most discussions of collegiate sports define male transfer students as being at-risk, it is only a matter of time before women students will face many of the same issues.

The responsibility for identifying and resolving the issues of concern for transferring junior college student-athletes is shared by the student-athlete, the coaches at the junior college, the coaches at the four-year institution, and any counselor or academician who is involved in the recruiting, admission, counseling, or instruction process. None of the concerns can be adequately addressed through seminars or orientation. Just as the issues and related skills are life-shaping, the time to identify, address, develop, and resolve them is ongoing until they are mastered. That is not to say that seminars, orientation sessions, and courses are unnecessary or worthless. They are only the beginning, not the beginning and the end as they are too often represented.

Perhaps the best applicable developmental guide is the CHAMPS/Life Skills Program that has been endorsed by the National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA). CHAMPS (Challenging Athletic Minds for Personal Success) focuses on the holistic development of the individual student-athlete. It is divided into five components: Academic Excellence, Athletic Excellence, Personal Development, Service, and Career Development. Unfortunately, the initial efforts to establish meaningful programs that address these components have focused on the needs of the largest group of new student-athletes—incoming freshmen. Many junior college transfer student-athletes feel excluded from such programs. By mobilizing campus resources to address all of these components as they also apply to junior college transfer students, the missing link to greater success for members of this group should be filled in.

The Historical Perspective

It should be noted that the issues being discussed in this chapter have a relatively long and complex history. They existed in 1905, when the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States was formed at the direction of Chancellor Henry M. MacCracken of New York University and President Theodore Roosevelt. The organization's purpose was "to promote and review the atrocious state of intercollegiate athletics." However, a real crisis of concern regarding academic ethics and integrity became the focus of a repeated public outcry in the early 1980s that could not be ignored. The response was the formation of the NCAA Presidents Commission, the Knight Commission, and a threat by certain federal lawmakers that, unless steps were taken to guarantee institutions' responsibility for greater academic accountability for athletes, Congress and the Department of Education would take matters into their own hands.

The result was a rush to fix that which was alleged to be broken by imposing higher standards and harsher penalties. The NCAA Presidents Commission began the expansion of NCAA academic requirements for initial, continuing, and transfer academic athletics eligibility rules (Article 14) in the *NCAA Manual*. Other national organizations either took a wait-and-see approach, watching the outcomes of NCAA-based initiatives, or they raised their own academic bars. Focusing on academic reform, the Knight Commission made numerous recommendations in its final report that would enable institutions' chief executive officers to gain control of intercollegiate athletics.

College administrators who were dealing with student-athlete affairs in that decade may recall the immediate impact of Proposition 48. There was an apparent increase of potential college freshman student-athletes who chose to begin their collegiate studies at a junior college, NAIA institution, or college other than a NCAA member school for the fall term of 1986, the first year that the NCAA required a minimum cumulative grade point average for core courses and minimum ACT/SAT scores. At the same time, the existing standards for transfer and continuing athletic eligibility were being scrutinized to determine if they were the most efficacious method to get these same students admitted and eligible for intercollegiate athletic competition at NCAA member institutions.

As a result, many NCAA Division I and II coaches increased and altered their recruiting strategies as they realized that prospective athletes might need to attend junior/community colleges. One popular strategy was to determine what other institutions' academic curricula might offer the most convenient or least challenging academic program to ensure the student-athlete's participation at the NCAA member institution within two or, at the most, three years. The athlete was then sent to a junior college and told what courses to take. In some recent cases a number of schools have been charged with using less than honest methods to meet athletic academic eligibility standards for junior college transfer recruits by encouraging them to take excessive hours of non-foundation courses and/or correspondence-type studies during the months just prior to their scheduled arrival at the four-year institution. Although the NCAA hoped this practice was limited in scope, an ongoing NCAA investigation has determined that it is much more widespread than originally thought. Despite the heightened concern, correspondence courses, which are

now being relabeled as part of the "distance learning" curriculum, are increasing as rapidly as finances and technology will allow. Administrative boards continue to give support to their development because they are cost-effective and reach large numbers of students without the confinement of buildings and space.

The higher standards for NCAA initial eligibility have now gone into effect and have caused more prospective four-year recruits to begin their collegiate studies at a junior college. As these students earn their associate degrees and seek to transfer to four-year institutions, they may be faced with other rules restricting further their ability to seek an education and to participate in intercollegiate sports. An example is the 35% degree completion rule (NCAA Bylaw 14.5.4.1.3.1) that applies only to partial and nonqualifiers who wish to participate in football and men's basketball. Unfortunately, when a student begins collegiate studies at a two-year college, it is unlikely that anyone can predict a final educational destination. All too often numerous courses cannot be transferred for credit at the new school. In addition, because the transfer student in this scenario is not immediately eligible, the recruiting attention of coaches is limited. A related issue then is improving opportunity to acquire a four-year degree through a combination of satisfactory academic preparation and athletic ability.

The perception that rules compliance alone is the only concern regarding junior college transfer student-athletes is shortsighted. As more prospective college student-athletes utilize a circuitous route to attain athletic eligibility, additional athletic academic rules will be adopted to create an increasingly challenging and sustained focus on the ethics and integrity of such transfer students. Their academic advisors and coaches will also be subject to greater scrutiny. The quality of the first-college experience for junior college students is paramount for the second first-year experience to be rewarding.

What are the possible issues facing transfer students who began at a junior college for reasons that may or may not have included academics?

- The junior college may have been close to home; the move to a four-year school may take the student away from family and friends for the first time.
- It was less costly to attend a junior college; the expenses of attending school for the final two to three years may require family sacrifices, student employment, or financial aid, including loans.
- Junior college classes are generally smaller with more personalized instruction; the classes at the university may be larger than any the student has previously attended, and the students may only be known by their identification number on the class roster.
- The student may have had no idea what major to pursue, and the junior college can offer greater safety to explore many career-oriented fields; the university students likely focused only on core courses during the first two years.
- The coach at the junior college recruited the student-athlete; the four-year university coaches showed no interest or had no scholarships available.
- Going to a two-year college meant the student-athlete would be able to play and compete immediately; at the university it was likely that the student would have to redshirt or sit on the bench.
- The common perception was that the courses at the junior college were easier; the course work at the university was hard, and many students failed courses since the level of academic competition was very high.

Family, friends, money, employment, class size, and playing time are among the many reasons for attending a junior college. For the student-athlete who is preparing to transfer from a junior college, each of the reasons listed above serves as a potential difficulty for making the transition to a four-year school. If the student's transfer to a four-year institution—the second first-year experience—is to be successful, these issues must be met head-on.

The first question that is often asked about a junior college student-athlete is, "Was he a partial or

a nonqualifier?" The stigma of being less than a qualifier is stereotypically placed on all such transferring student-athletes. Many four-year institutions avoid recruiting junior college transfers because they believe that these students are less likely to graduate or that they will be unable to maintain eligiblity for two consecutive years. The former concern has been addressed by *NCAA Research Report 92-01* which clearly demonstrated that partial qualifiers and nonqualifiers actually improved their graduation rates following implementation of Proposition 48. During the same period, qualifiers in revenue sports did not improve their graduation rates. This research, started in 1985, is ongoing. It will be interesting to see if the results continue in the same direction when the effects of the degree completion rules are applied.

The Decision to Attend a Junior College

In a recent issue of the *NCAA News*, a headline article cited research illustrating an alarming growth in the number of students who failed to achieve the minimum academic requirements to be certified as initial qualifiers. The underlying feature of this dramatic change was that low socioeconomic status coupled with participation in revenue sports appeared to be major factors in student-athletes' failure to achieve NCAA initial qualifier status. The growth of this population and the restrictions placed by many athletic conferences on their member institutions' recruitment and athletic participation of nonqualifying prospects create a category of student-athletes who must pursue and accept the offers provided by institutions that usually would not have been their first choice had they met the qualifying standards.

For many student-athletes who attend a junior college, the decision to do so was not made by choice. It was made because of their need to find a bridge between high school and a competitive four-year institution. Such a scenario is particularly true of student-athletes who participate in a revenue sport. The NCAA has noted that the group of lower-level minority students (who make up a significant number of participating student-athletes in the revenue sports of football and basketball) has experienced a notable growth of ineligible students who are prospective college freshmen. It is these partial and nonqualifiers who are then coerced by the nature of their classification to attend junior colleges if they wish to maintain participation in athletic competition.

It would be a fallacy, however, to assume that every junior college student-athlete has been classified as unable to meet the qualifying athletic eligibility standards of a four-year college or university. Many qualifying student-athletes may choose to attend a junior college for all the "correct" academic reasons. For example, they may want to enjoy the typically smaller class sizes; in recognition of their own academic limitations, they may want to ease themselves into the rigors of baccalaureate study; they may be uncertain about their desired field of study and find the junior college curriculum more appropriately designed for that period of self-study; or they may find the cost of a junior college education to be more aligned with their family's economic status.

In all cases, though, the student-athlete may also choose to attend the junior college for primarily athletic purposes. Among those motivating decisions are (a) not being recruited by a four-year school, (b) the lack of being offered an athletically related grant-in-aid, (c) the desire and/or promise to get playing time, (d) the desire for an opportunity to align oneself with a coach who has a record of developing individuals into elite class athletes, (e) the opportunity to be on a winning team or to win as an individual, and (f) the opportunity to develop a relationship with an athletics program that has a good four-year college or professional sport placement record. Unfortunately, it appears that, regardless of the student-athlete's initial eligibility status, when these have been the predominant factors in the decision for attending a junior college, problems and concerns often arise with some notable justification at the time of transfer.

Another problem faced by many of these students is that to have any opportunity to further develop their athletic opportunities, they must adhere to any directives administered by their coach and any other school-related individuals who might advise them, both athletically and academically. The uncertainty of whether they

might be recruited for participation at a higher level and by whom also creates confusion which often disables the student-athletes from making good academic decisions about the courses they are to take and the level of academic effort they should expend.

Discussion has developed in several quarters to consider asking the NCAA to create core course curriculum requirements for junior college transfer students. This would be similar in theory to the tenets of NCAA Bylaw 14.3, the initial eligibility core course requirements. Specific semester/quarter hours of courses in English, mathematics, science, and social science would be required to be a part of the student-athlete's transferable hours needed for immediate eligibility upon transfer.

An initial proposal to create such a bylaw was forwarded to the NCAA's Annual Convention in January 1994 by the Gulf Coast Conference. However, the recommendation included restoration of a lost season of eligibility for NCAA non- and partial-qualifiers. The addition of that stipulation raised concern about the proposal, and it was withdrawn before any vote was taken. Since then, the NCAA has focused on "student-athlete welfare."

Developmental and Remedial Courses

The need for developmental and remedial course work in reading, writing, and mathematics at the collegiate level has never received so much attention as it does today. A number of states now require students to pass basic skills tests set at the college freshman level. Some community colleges also regularly screen students in a diagnostic/prescriptive approach to determine the need for very basic remedial instruction prior to taking any mandatory state examinations. Additional required courses may result in students extending their enrollment period to three years of study. These students may find it nearly impossible to transfer to the institution of their choice and become immediately eligible since they would then be required to have earned 50% of their baccalaureate degree at the new school. Unless the four-year institution to which a community college student is transferring has a baccalaureate curriculum that requires few upper-level (junior and senior) courses, and has ample opportunity to include free elective credits or requires fewer than 110 to 115 semester hours (or the quarter hour requirement equivalent), the community college student-athlete may not be able to transfer successfully. Furthermore, the student-athlete may fall into a chasm of not ever again being able to compete in intercollegiate athletics under the NCAA banner.

Another academic requirement that is being added to the regimen in many states is the mandate to pass a test of basic skills. Typically, these tests measure students' abilities in the three skill areas of reading, writing, and mathematics. Students who do not achieve passing scores are usually prohibited from taking specific community college degree credit courses and in some states may not graduate from the junior college. This factor may also delay a student's transfer or extend the period for earning an associate degree to three years.

Even if the student passes both elements, the combined impact of (a) being required to take developmental/remedial courses and (b) passing all the parts of a basic skills test that is a prerequisite to community college graduation may serve as a prohibiting factor that discourages coaches from recruiting the student-athletes. For even if that individual were a qualifier, the student (a) would need to earn a minimum of 25%-35% of the baccalaureate degree to be immediately eligible, (b) would need to have earned 50% if enrolled at the beginning of the third year of enrollment, (c) would need an additional 25% of a degree for the next year of enrollment, and (d) would only have two years of eligibility remaining.

Achieving a Balance before and after Transfer

It is difficult for the community college student to achieve and maintain a balance between athletics and academics. Although the NCAA does not require a minimum grade point average in order to maintain eligibility after the first semester of full-time enrollment at the four-year level, the NJCAA requires at least a 1.75 first-semester grade point average for continued or initial eligibility during the second term.

Perhaps more confusing to the junior college student-athlete is the NJCAA requirement to have a 2.0 at the beginning of the third semester of enrollment when a 1.75 (based on a 4.0 scale) was adequate for the previous semester. This rule change may lead the student to take a number of interim or summer courses which may have no future transfer or degree credit application—a practice that can have serious repercussions when the student attempts to transfer to a four-year institution.

Junior College: Foundation for a Baccalaureate Degree

As mentioned earlier, community colleges have at least one common mission that most carry out very well—to identify areas of needed academic remediation and development and prepare students for their last two years of study in pursuit of a baccalaureate degree. It is the latter portion of this goal that sometimes appears to be forgotten, particularly when athletic factors of achieving or maintaining athletic eligibility at the two-year level are added. The immediate athletic eligibility needs overshadow the student-athlete's academic best interests. It is not unusual for a NCAA institutional member's athletic academic staff and coaches to be faced with the difficult task of informing a junior college student-athlete who intends to transfer that his or her pursuit of course work at the community college has rendered him or her ineligible for transfer. The same dilemma may occur at another school that must adhere to specific rules of the NSCAA, NAIA, or NCCAA.

The issues of transferable courses and degree completion requirements have created another ethical dilemma: Community college transfer students may have an adequate number of transferable hours (with the needed minimum grade point average), but they may not have the appropriate courses to meet the needed percentage of degree completion. This issue is particularly potent in the case of students who were less than NCAA qualifiers and who wish to participate in men's basketball and football. In such cases the tail of eligibility wags the dog, as a student selects a major field of study due to limited applicable courses for other majors. As this problem unfolds, the transferring student-athlete may be encouraged to accept placement in any major field, just to attain eligibility. The resulting lack of interest and overall dissatisfaction with a curriculum that does not produce desired career options creates a negative attitude about achieving any academic goals.

Preparing for the Junior College Transfer

It is unfortunate that junior college transfers are not welcomed with the same fervor as freshmen who begin their studies at the same institution. These transfer students often develop a strong sense that they are not truly members of their new institution, either academically or socially. It may be difficult for transfers to break into preestablished formal and informal groups or to defeat an attitude that suggests the junior college student-athlete took the easy road to get into the four-year school. There exists for many transfer students a sense that they are behind, and therefore uncomfortable, in learning the nuances of the new university. The problem is that as much as the transfer student knows about the new college or university, the new school does little to apply what it knows about the new junior college transfer student-athlete. Such is especially the case for those who transfer at midyear. Careful consideration should be given to the creation and use of a transfer student-athlete survey that can be either sent to the student-athlete's junior college academic advisor (or athletic academic advisor or coach) or can be used as an interviewing/screening tool as the four-year advisor/counselor visits with the student. A copy of such a survey appears at the end of this chapter and may be reprinted and/or adapted for immediate use.

By gathering this kind of information, the four-year school can bridge the gap that has developed since the transfer student-athlete graduated from high school. The result is more accurate advising, better use of needed resources, improvement of the transferring student's comfort zone, and better overall performance—athletically, academically, socially, and personally.

Preparing for Reform

The NJCAA is currently evaluating how well its student-athletes make the transition to four-year

schools, particularly those who are members of the NCAA. Discussion is focusing on minimal core course requirements at the end of a full year of study, or within another specific time period. The CCCCA has had such an ongoing discussion for several years. Still, while many recognize the problem, no legislation has been born from these common agendas.

Two years ago the NCAA dramatically altered its governance structure. The designation of an institution's division and athletic conference alignment became the dominant features that would determine its athletic future. However, the most crucial aspect of that reconstruction was the elimination of the NCAA committee that served as a liaison to junior colleges. With that avenue destroyed, junior/community college advocates, academicians who are poignantly aware of the educational needs of potential community college students, and the junior college students themselves have little opportunity to initiate reform. That responsibility is now almost entirely on the shoulders of the athletic conferences, and input from their member institutions is the only method by which reform can occur. The structures of the NAIA, the NCCAA and the NSCAA are considerably smaller than the NCAA. Therefore, they initially appear to be less cumbersome and more suited to reform. But most of the colleges and universities in these groups are private institutions. That categorization involves significant differences in mission, constituency, and organization. Just as NCAA member institutions are concerned about competitiveness, so too are many of these schools. In some ways, then, it is less likely that a consensus of opinion on the methods for reform can be achieved among them.

In order to increase the likelihood that junior college transfer student-athletes will be able to attend a college or university of their choosing, or that chooses them, efforts need to be made to ensure that potential transfers are required to take core courses. The difficulty of the core courses would increase incrementally with each semester/quarter of attendance. Certainly, some transferring junior college student-athletes would not be able to attain the standard. In such cases if they aspire to participate in professional sports, they would need to test their worth within a reasonably short period of time. However, if attending a four-year college is still in their dreams, then perhaps attending a four-year institution without participating in athletics for one year may become the recommended standard.

Conclusion

The community/junior/two-year college transfer student-athlete is basically like many of the students on every four-year campus. He or she is concerned about grades, athletic performance, and what it will all cost. However, unlike the four-year school freshman, the junior college transfer student may have been less prepared for the collegiate world upon entering junior college, and he/she may have developed an impression of college life that is somewhat misleading. Colleges and universities that accept these student-athletes have an obligation to treat them with the same enthusiasm and teaching strategies as they do their freshman students. It is irresponsible to simply hope that these students will blend in and experience a spontaneous, successful immersion into a brand new setting. Complete information about students should be gathered before and while they attend the new four-year school. By identifying, addressing, and resolving those skills and coping mechanisms that are needed to meet the concerns and characteristics of transferring junior college student-athletes, colleges and universities can be more assured that the students' second first-year experience will be rewarding and enjoyable.

Suggested Readings

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Appendix

Transfer Student-Athlete Survey

The student-athlete identified on this page has indicated that he/she has or currently is attending your institution. This same student-athlete has also been in contact with a coach here at *(Your school's name here)* for the purpose of transferring to our institution. Please complete the following information and return this completed survey to our office by fax or regular mail. We ask that you first secure the prospective transferring student-athlete's permission to provide us with this information.

Name of Transferring Student-Athlete	Social Security Number
Current Street Address	Current City/State/Zip Code
Permanent Street Address	Permanent City/State/Zip Code
Current Telephone Number	Permanent Telephone Number
Name of Sending Institution	City/State of Sending Institution

1. What type of college is your institution?
(Check one) ____ 2-year ____ 4 -year
(Check one) ____ public ____ private

2. By what type of term system annual does your college operate?
(Check one) ____ quarter ____ semester

3. When did this student-athlete begin attending your school?
_____/_____
Month Year

3a. When did this student-athlete first attend your school as a full-time student?
_____/_____
Month Year

3b. If yours is a two-year college, did this student graduate?
_____/_____
Yes No

3c. If the student-athlete has or will be graduated, please identify the type of degree and date of graduation:

Type of Degree	Date of Graduation

4. Please identify any other postsecondary institutions this student-athlete has attended:

Name of Institution	City/State
Name of Institution	City/State
Name of Institution	City/State

5. If known, please identify the high school(s) this student-athlete attended:

Name of High School	City/State
Name of High School	City/State

6. Did this student-athlete graduate from high school or earn a GED?
(Check One) ____ HS Diploma ____ GED ____ Neither

7. Please identify the highest test scores this student-athlete has earned.

ACT: ____ Reading ____ Mathematics ____ Science ____ Social Reasoning
____ Composite

SAT: ____ Verbal ____ Mathematics ____ Total

TOEFL: ____ Verbal ____ Mathematics ____ Total

*TASP: ____ Reading ____ Writing ____ Mathematics

*TASP is a basic skills test that must be passed in the state of Texas before one can graduate from a public junior/community college. It must only be taken, not necessarily passed, before one can enroll in postsecondary classes in a state-supported college or university within Texas.

8. To the best of your knowledge, what was this student-athlete's NCAA Initial Eligibility Clearinghouse certification status?
(Check One) ____ Qualifier ____ Partial Qualifier ____ Non-Qualifier ____ Did Not File

9. Please identify the number of semester/quarter hours earned by this student-athlete for each of the following areas of courses:

Developmental/Remedial:

Mathematics _____ Reading _____ Writing _____

Core Curriculum Courses:

English _____ Mathematics ____ Science_____ Social Sciences_____ Humanities _____
Fine Arts _____ Foreign Language _____ Physical Ed _____ Computer Science _____

Other _____

Total Semester/Quarter Hours _____
(Circle choice of term to indicate type of hours)

10. Has this student-athlete been diagnosed with any type of learning disability?
_____ Yes _____ No

10a. If your answer is "Yes," please forward any supporting documentation.

10b. If your answer is "Yes," please identify any types of accommodations that were provided to this student-athlete at his/her high school or any postsecondary institution, including your own:

_____

_____

10c. If your answer is "No," but you suspect this student-athlete may have some type of learning/reading disability, please provide comments/documentation citing your concerns:

_____

_____

11. Please rate this student-athlete's frequency of classroom attendance:
____ Regularly attends ____ Attends with occasional absences
____ Attends with frequent absences ____ Rarely attends

12. What is this student-athlete's cumulative grade point average? _____

13. Please identify any desired career field(s) cited by this student-athlete, including participation in professional athletics:

_____

14. Please identify any major field(s) of study preferred by this student-athlete:

_____

15. Please provide us with any other information you believe will better help us understand the academic strengths and weaknesses of this student-athlete:

_____

16. Has this student-athlete been willing to accept tutorial services when they are recommended?
____ Yes ____ No

17. Has this student-athlete been willing to attend academic advising sessions and follow any subsequent advice?
____ Yes ____ No

18. Is this student-athlete married?
____ Yes ____ No

19. Does this student-athlete have any dependents?
____ Yes ____ No

19a. If "Yes," what is/are the ages of any dependents? _____

19b. If "Yes," are day care/pre-school services needed?
____ Yes ____ No

20. Will this student-athlete require any type of financial aid?
____ Yes ____ No

20a. Did this student-athlete receive any financial aid while enrolled at your school?
____ Yes ____ No

20b. If "Yes," what types of financial aid did this student-athlete receive?
_____ Pell Grant _____ GSL ____ Private bank loan ____ Other

21. Was this student-athlete employed while attending your school?
____ Yes ____ No

22. Will this student-athlete or a spouse require employment upon transfer to a 4-year school?
____ Yes ____ No

23. Please provide any other notes or documentation that will help us properly support the academic and life skills support efforts for this student-athlete.

24. Please provide your name, title, and telephone number so that we may be better able to work with you in preparing this student-athlete for transfer:

_____	_____	_____
Name	Title	Telephone Number

Thank you for your assistance in contributing toward the provision of proper and adequate academic and life skills support for this student-athlete upon transfer to our University.

CHAPTER 10

THE FIRST-YEAR FEMALE STUDENT-ATHLETE: CHARACTERISTICS AND INTERVENTIONS

Carol A. Gruber

Life for the female college student-athlete poses numerous challenges which are both similar to and different from her male counterpart. As with other college students, first-year student-athletes find themselves searching for meaning, identity, and future direction while dealing with a multitude of new experiences and issues. Because of the specific characteristics, history, and needs which the student-athlete brings to the college environment, it is important for those who teach, coach, advise, and work in other ways with this student population to be cognizant of these issues. Additionally, the female student-athlete population, which has been often overlooked, presents special considerations. This chapter provides information on theory, research, and interventions which pertain to this unique subgroup of students. Because the first year of college is so critical to the success and persistence of college students, this chapter has been written to provide professionals with the knowledge and tools which will enable them to assist female student-athletes in reaching their developmental goals during the first year of college and beyond.

Life-Span Development Theory and College-Age Women

The college years are typically some of the most memorable ones for many individuals, since they are filled with challenge, independence, responsibility, growth, and change. Indeed, most developmental theorists believe that these years incorporate a process by which students move toward a more complex and integrated way of thinking, feeling, and behaving (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). In his earlier and revised work, Chickering (1969, 1981, 1993) describes seven vectors or routes which most college students take on this developmental journey. These seven vectors are:

- developing competence
- managing emotions
- moving through autonomy toward interdependence

- developing mature interpersonal relationships
- establishing identity
- developing purpose
- developing integrity

According to Chickering's theory, these seven aspects of development are somewhat sequential, with each one building upon the other. For example, although Chickering believes that cementing one's identity is perhaps the most critical vector, this is heavily influenced by what one believes about personal competence, how well one handles emotions, and how well integrated one is with surroundings and with others.

It is interesting to note several substantial changes between Chickering's earlier work and his more recent revision of *Education and Identity* (1993). These changes are noteworthy because they take into consideration and give credence to several populations previously ignored by most theorists. Chickering himself agrees that most life-span development theories were founded upon research that did not include a multicultural or female perspective. If one compares his earlier model with his revision, it is possible to see that a greater emphasis is placed upon interdependence, handling a broader spectrum of emotions, and the need for a multicultural view of society. In addition, his developing identity vector includes the idea that legitimate differences exist, depending upon one's gender, ethnic background, and sexual orientation.

Others, such as Gilligan (1982), have taken a more critical stance toward traditional development theories. In her book, *In a Different Voice*, Gilligan observes that the work done by Kohlberg (1969, 1971) on his theory of moral development was both biased and insensitive to the experience of women. Whereas Kohlberg's theory emphasized the importance of individuation and separation in developing the ideals of justice as a moral goal, Gilligan's work incorporates the values of connectedness and caring as equally legitimate experiences in the moral development of women. This sense of interdependence and concern for others is found in both men and women, but more frequently in women, and Gilligan believes that both individuation and connectedness must be seen as legitimate views of the world.

How then does the work of these researchers affect what we know about college-age women, and women student-athletes specifically?

Women and the College Experience

Approximately 52% of all college students are women, however just 27% of all tenure-track faculty are women (Chapman, 1989). This disparity in representation among the female college student population and its potential female academic mentor population gives rise to many questions surrounding the experiences of young women in today's institutions of higher education. Because, as Gilligan (1982) and Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberg, and Tarule (1986) assert, females perceive and relate to the world in a fundamentally different way than males, it is critical that their beliefs, values, and experiences are seen as equally legitimate to those of their male counterparts. When a young woman enters college, she must begin to deal with the same basic academic, social, and personal development tasks as the first-year male college student. But, because of the importance of relationships and caring for others, the female freshman will encounter and respond to the college experience differently than the male student, who places a higher value on individuality and autonomous lifestyle.

Adjusting to the Collegiate Environment

One of the initial challenges that first-year female college students must face is that of learning about and mastering the academic environment. Of disturbing note are findings by Evans (1985), which indicate that the self-confidence of females tends to drop during the college years, while it rises for males. Closely tied to female self-confidence are the collegiate experiences, support, and approval given by significant others in these students' lives as they encounter this increasingly challenging environment.

Research by Kenny and Donaldson (1991, 1992), Rice (1992), and others indicates that

gender differences are fairly clear when looking at the relationship between first-year college adjustment and parental attachment, as well as separation issues. Female college student adjustment is directly related to an ability to maintain supportive close relationships with parents, which is characterized by the absence of anxiety or guilt toward parents and the maintenance of similar attitudes as those held by parents. Male college adjustment, however, was not significantly related to these findings (Kenny, 1987; Lapsley, Rice, & Shadid, 1989). Because the development of self for females is closely tied to interpersonal relationships, it is important that student services personnel, counselors, and other collegiate mentors address these support systems with their first-year women students. As Gilligan (1982) indicates, because this plays a critical role in the healthy development of college-age women, and because many of these students are away from home for the first time, it is the responsibility of those at collegiate institutions to assist female students in working through these issues. The academic environment includes behaviors inside and outside the classroom, perceptions of faculty support or helpfulness, the existence of a welcoming social climate for females, and a set of institutional policies and practices which legitimize the position and safety of women on campus. The extent to which first-year college women adequately adjust to college life is directly related to the quality of their experiences in each of these areas.

Establishing Personal Identity

A second major task facing young female college students is the solidification of a personal identity. This identity has as its fundamental basis previous experiences and reinforcements from parents, teachers, and other significant others during early and middle childhood. Let us not forget the additional impact made as a result of socialization through the mediums of television, radio, and the film industry.

Young women will experience a new century founded upon dramatic changes in women's lives worldwide from the previous 100 years. Females envision themselves as integral parts of a quickly changing and ever-emerging society. This is largely due to having mothers, grandmothers, and other significant females who have successfully navigated these waters before them. The support and encouragement by significant males in young women's lives provide additional impetus toward identity development.

Because female identity development is closely connected with how a woman perceives herself in relationship to others in her world (Gilligan, 1982), the establishment of both social and sexual identity are important life tasks for the entering college female. As Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) indicate, identity development may move through continual change over a lifetime. It is, however, during the later teen and early adult years that women are presented with experiences and options outside of the watchful and guiding eyes of their parents. Decisions concerning social and sexual behaviors become greatly influenced by peers and by those who take over as role models in the newer, freer environment. Issues of friendship, dating, and sexual relationships are all being explored by both college-age women and men. Students will develop new friendships, some of which will be lifelong. Life outside the classroom often becomes equally important to students as life inside the classroom.

The social environment young women create for themselves is an important factor in the development of personal intimacy behavior. As Chapman (1989) indicates, young women of today are benefiting from over 25 years of the women's movement. Female sex-role identity must free itself from traditionally limiting stereotypes and behaviors. At the same time, males should be encouraged to view themselves and their relationships to women in a more inclusive and egalitarian manner. Issues such as responsible intimacy, sexual orientation, rape prevention, AIDS, and honest relationships are all topics that student services personnel, faculty, counselors, and others at collegiate institutions should pursue with young adults.

Developing Meaningful Life and Career Goals

Approximately 25% to 50% of entering college students walk in the doors of their respective institutions with no clear plans and perhaps only

a few vague ideas concerning their professional futures (Gordon, 1981, 1995). Given this fact, it can be assumed with relative assurance that first-year college students feel at least an underlying pressure to wrestle with this developmental task. Because of the nature of most liberal arts colleges and universities and the required exploration within the general education curriculum, students may find themselves either avoiding this issue or not using their general educational coursework to do some exploration of possible career topics. Faculty, academic advisers, and other student services personnel must recognize the importance of encouraging this discovery process through as many means as possible during that first year.

Several studies (Gottfredson, 1981; Hannah & Kahn, 1989; Leung & Harmon, 1990) have indicated a connection between occupational gender-typing and the perceptions of career alternatives for both males and females. Additionally, Hackett and Betz (1981) argue that gender-role socialization is related to career choices for females because of the level of self-efficacy which may be experienced. It is interesting to note, however, that females are much more likely to choose stereotypically male careers than are males to choose stereotypically female careers (Hannah & Kahn, 1989). Additionally, Leung and Harmon (1990) found that individuals who are more androgynous in their gender-role orientation (that is the inclusion of both feminine and masculine behavioral characteristics within an individual, Bem, 1974; Spence, Helmrich, & Holahan, 1978) are more likely to be the most open to exploring a variety of potential vocational preferences.

These findings suggest that differences exist in the career choices made by each gender but that females may perceive greater options than do males. Also indicated is the idea that traditional sex-role orientations (i.e., primarily feminine or primarily masculine) and the historical sex-typing of occupations are neither healthy nor productive to young women who are in the process of encountering this major life task. It is therefore critical that those individuals who impact the lives of these young women create a supportive and open environment which encourages these students to step out of their current safe—and perhaps closed—perception of who they are and who they can be into a world which states that anything is possible.

The World of the Female Student-Athlete

Thus far, we have considered the major academic, social, personal, and career-related tasks which first-year college women face. Let us now turn to the first-year collegiate female athlete. It is clear that women athletes encounter all of the challenges previously mentioned. It is also necessary to realize that, by virtue of the athletic demands placed upon these young women, additional developmental and environmental concerns are prevalent and must be addressed during the first (as well as subsequent) year(s) of college.

Both Parham (1993) and Ferrante, Etzel, and Lantz (1996) have written excellent treatises on the profile of as well as issues surrounding today's college student-athlete. A discussion of these challenges and their relationship specifically to female student-athletes will point the way toward understanding and assisting these women in finding both meaning and success during that very important first year.

Learning to Balance Academic and Athletic Pursuits

As Parham (1993) has indicated, student-athletes continuously struggle with the time demands placed upon them both academically and athletically. Not only are first-year student-athletes adjusting to a whole new level of academic expectations from faculty, but they are also dealing with a new coach and higher training demands. For the successful college student, study time alone must increase at least threefold from that of high school. Add to these hours of study practice time, travel time, competition time, media time, rehabilitation and training room time, and all the other typical life demands such as eating, sleeping, laundry, and social time. Learning to manage their time effectively becomes a critical factor for student-athletes in achieving success. One must keep in mind that these students are usually attempting this feat while in a state of almost constant mental and physical exhaustion (Ryan, Lein, Constantine, & Sweaver, 1994).

Advisers, coaches, and others who work with student-athletes must also consider the previous preparation, experiences, and skills of these women when guiding them toward successful accomplishment of this major task. The student-athlete who did not have to study much in high school to get B grades is going to have a rude awakening, probably sometime after her first college-level examination. The student-athlete who comes to college with a less than adequate high school preparation, who has never written a research paper or been asked to think in conceptual terms, will be at a great disadvantage until those skills are learned. The student-athlete who expects to train at a similar level and for a similar duration as she did in high school will also be making major adjustments with respect to those demands.

Complicating this issue is the fact that many first-year college student-athletes come in with very well-defined athletic selves, but with far less knowledge about themselves outside of this arena (Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989). Because many elite female athletes feel more comfortable and confident with their athletic selves (Ryan et al., 1994), and less so with their academic selves, this transition to higher levels of college academics coupled with greater expectations athletically creates a volatile situation for many young women.

Finally, it is wise to consider that what is, for most entering college students, a greatly anticipated expectation—that of increased freedom and autonomy in one's lifestyle—is for college athletes nonexistent. Many first-year women athletes struggle with the competing needs of freedom from parental rules and the need to conform to team rules and social climate. Those who work with student-athletes must be acutely aware of these pressures as they guide students in the choices they make.

Dealing with Isolation

Because the collegiate team and the athletics department itself are perceived as "family environments" for student-athletes, often these students will not seek others outside of this supportive "home" (Ferrante, Etzel, & Lantz, 1996). Additionally, because of their many commitments and limited social encounters, student-athletes may feel somewhat isolated from mainstream campus activities (Parham, 1993; Pinkerton, Hinz, & Barrow, 1989). Given what we already know about the importance of social and interpersonal connnectedness for females, this would seem an even more troubling circumstance for women athletes. Problems of not getting along with new roommates or emotional problems stemming from leaving their best friends or significant others to come to college can create severe disturbances during the first semester. If these issues are not dealt with during this time, the risks of inadequate adjustment, loneliness, academic problems, and eventually leaving school could present themselves. Since, as stated earlier, parental support and a lack of conflict with parents are both important issues in first-year college adjustment for females, coaches and student services personnel must not overlook those findings when thinking that they will be able to provide all necessary support. We must consider the home environment and talk openly with our women student-athletes about their thoughts and feelings.

A second consideration when examining the possible isolation of women athletes on campus is the provision of opportunities for these students to seek experiences in other areas of campus life and to incorporate in their educational programming multicultural, career-related, volunteer, and social experiences that tie them to the university community. The recently adopted NCAA Life Skills Program provides an excellent framework for athletics departments to assist student-athletes in this venture. Finally, faculty support and involvement in these students' lives is certainly an equally important issue. Student-athletes should be strongly encouraged to take full advantage of faculty, not only as teachers, but also as mentors.

Changes in Success, Failure, and Commitment

Like their male counterparts, many women athletes come to college from highly competitive and successful high school or club programs where they were more than likely one of the top competitors. Adjustments to the collegiate athletic environment can be critical to both the success and happiness of the first-year female

athlete. Pressures from home and the desire to continue excelling at a high level come head to head with a realization that there is much more to learn, perhaps more failures than successes that first year, and a change in status within this new team environment (Parham, 1993). A redefinition of each student-athlete's role on the team will take place during the transformation from high school to college. The coach, the student, and the rest of the team will create this role together. Support services personnel can be available to help provide the environment by which each new woman athlete will be able to reach the goals she sets for herself.

As challenges of success, failure, and new levels of commitment reach into the academic lives of these young women, it is critical that athletics departments actively bridge the gap between the athlete and scholar. Academic advisers, faculty, and other collegiate personnel must become as important in those students' eyes as the coach, the team, and the pride of the uniform. Because the most influential and probably the most powerful person in the lives of college women athletes is their coach, this individual must play a major role in creating an environment where the academic self is nurtured as much as the athletic self. Additionally, support services for student-athletes should offer seminars or other options where first-year women athletes can discuss the issues presented here if these are not already offered by the general university.

Physical and Mental Health Concerns

Because student-athletes are expected to function successfully in all aspects of their college lives, maintenance of good physical and mental health is a necessity. When a student-athlete becomes injured, she is faced with numerous adjustments, both physical and psychological (Tunick, Etzel, Leard, & Lerner, 1996). The initial shock, potential surgery, rehabilitation process, and eventual return to practice and competition are but first-level concerns. Additional psychological factors involve isolation from the team, support by coaches, team, and family, loss of social status, motivation, and the long term effects of serious injury. As Ryan et al. (1994) note, female athletes in particular feel a real need for the family and the coaches' support during this time. They state that "female athletes are highly susceptible to depression and compulsive behaviors during injury rehabilitation, resulting from loss of self-esteem and identity that are generated primarily from their ability to perform" (Ryan et al., 1994, p. 16).

Health and injury risks for female collegiate athletes include issues surrounding eating disorders, amenorrhea, and osteoporosis, which tend to produce such things as stress fractures and musculoskeletal injuries (Parham, 1993). Additionally, as Cogan and Petrie (1996) and Meyer (1990) point out, other mental health issues for women athletes include such things as sexual abuse, date rape, and trying to deal with sexual orientation issues in a traditionally homophobic environment.

All of these health-related issues can have a profound effect upon the stress level experienced by these young women (McDonald & Hardy, 1990; Passer & Seese, 1983; Rotella & Heyman, 1986). Professionals who work with student-athletes must be cognizant of both these physical and psychological issues and how they may affect the lives of their students. Specifically, athletic trainers, coaches, and student services personnel, who usually provide frontline intervention, must become knowledgeable about these factors and their own roles in the healing process.

Relationships Revisited

As indicated previously in this chapter, student-athletes find themselves juggling numerous roles, expectations, and relationships. Family, coaches, professors, friends, significant others, and the community all compete for the collegiate athlete's time and attention. Because most women view relationships with others as a high priority in their lives (Gilligan, 1982), it would seem that this task is a critical one for female collegiate athletes. Additionally, the first-year student must learn about and develop a whole new set of relationships. Getting to know and work with the collegiate coach's personality, expectations, level of control, and communication style are just some of the new dynamics.

Because of the changes in responsibility, decision making, and other personal life tasks, the

first-year student will return home midyear with a multitude of new experiences upon which to draw. As a result, it may be necessary for her to begin to renegotiate her relationships with parents and family. A sense of newfound freedom and responsibility may cause friction when she returns home to old rules and behaviors. However, the female athlete still needs that sense of support and positive reinforcement from home.

The change or loss of old friendships and the development of new ones constitute a third dynamic operating on the first-year female athlete. Because much of her time will be spent with her teammates or other student-athletes, new friendships will develop out of her relationship with this student population. Unfortunately, female athletes must still deal with the fact that they may get very little campus-wide support for being athletes, a phenomenon not usually experienced by their male counterparts (Cogan & Petrie, 1996). Allison (1991) indicates that most female athletes feel comfortable with their roles, but Griffin (1992) adds that many women may face negative stereotypes as a result of their involvement as student-athletes. Strains on friendship and community support are both potential concerns faced by female collegiate athletes.

On the other side of the coin, as the growth in women's collegiate sports programs continues, there is greater pressure for coaches and female athletes to respond to fans and the community in more time-committed ways. For example, many athletics programs incorporate booster clubs for their women's teams, and many teams travel around the country, not only to compete, but also to host receptions for local alumni. Women athletes of today must find ways to balance these requests and relationships in addition to all the others previously mentioned.

Ethnic Differences

Women student-athletes from a variety of ethnic minorities make up a small but significant percentage of the total female athlete population in today's colleges and universities. In fact, most athletics programs enjoy a larger ethnic minority student population than the overall institutions themselves. Most of these young women come from African-American heritage, and many are attending predominantly White schools (Parham, 1993; Sellers & Damas, 1996). Like their male counterparts, African-American women athletes are most highly represented in the sports of basketball and track and field. As reported earlier by Fleming (1983) and recently by Sellers (1992), African-American female athletes better adjust to life on a predominantly White college campus than do males, encounter fewer incidences of racial tension, and are more satisfied with their college experience overall. This, however, does not mean that these young women do not have to make significant adjustments in their lives. Additionally, these athletes suffer the same forms of institutionalized and personal racism that all minority students encounter, and combat prejudged assumptions by students, faculty, and staff alike (DeFrancesco & Gropper, 1996). These additional layers of challenge make all of the previously mentioned developmental tasks and issues for student-athletes much more difficult for the modern African-American female athlete. As Smallman, Sowa, and Young (1991) indicate, student services personnel, coaches, and faculty must take into consideration all of these ethnic, cultural, and sociological identities and related issues when working with this student population to ensure a positive and successful collegiate and athletic experience.

Facilitating Success for the First-Year College Female Athlete

It is clear that the developmental challenges that face collegiate women athletes are numerous above and beyond those of the general college student population. These athletes do, however, share many of the same academic and social challenges as their fellow female students, as well as many of the same gender issues. Because success and satisfaction during the first year of college are so important in both the developmental process and the retention of students, emphasis should be placed on measures that facilitate these positive outcomes. Most NCAA Division I and many Division II institutions now provide some form of student academic support service for their student-athlete populations. Many of these support programs

incorporate interventions for first-year students specifically. An institution or athletics department wishing to focus upon this student population may wish to consider the following components and guidelines.

Recommendations for Assessment

Learn as much about your incoming student-athlete population as you can by preparing new student profiles. Assess your first-year students' own perceptions of themselves as learners. What do they think their greatest strengths and weaknesses are in study skills, writing, reading, and mathematics? There are a number of useful assessment tools available for these kinds of inquiry, or you can create one that fits your situation. Identify early and begin referrals for student-athletes who either have a diagnosed learning disability or who you suspect may have one.

Recommendations for Orientation

Meet with your first-year students during summer orientation and registration sessions if possible. Review practice schedules and class schedules. Give students a brief overview of the support services program for student-athletes. Find out if they have any special concerns or issues that need to be taken care of prior to the start of school. Chat for a few minutes about their expectations for the fall semester. You may wish to give them a handout on any special fall meetings that will occur during the first few weeks.

Also, hold an "Orientation to Athletics" program for all first-year and transfer student-athletes. During this meeting you may wish to (a) provide some initial icebreaker activities, (b) provide tips and tricks related to survival during the first few weeks of school, (c) bring in other student-athletes to discuss their first-year experiences, (d) orient students to the support services available, (e) set up initial meetings with athletics counselors, and (f) introduce them to the staff with whom they will come in contact on a regular basis. You may also wish to provide them with a student-athlete handbook and review some general information on its contents.

Recommendations for Programming

Approximately 70% of collegiate institutions across the country provide some sort of first-year or freshman seminar. If your school offers such a course, you will want to obtain the course syllabus and consider providing some support activities for your first-year women that compliment the content of this course. For example, if the course includes a section on time management techniques, you may wish to continue to follow these same guidelines in working with your student-athletes. If career planning is included in the course, you may wish to provide programming that helps these students begin this process.

If your institution does not currently have a freshman seminar course of any kind, you may wish to create one for your student-athlete population. You will need to spend several months planning and perhaps getting support for this kind of project. This seminar should combine experiential learning, skill development, critical thinking, and dealing with a variety of transitional issues. Specific issues related to being a student-athlete should also be incorporated. When planning material and activities for this course, instructors should take into consideration the various student-athlete characteristics and issues described in the previous sections of this chapter.

Other programming that could be incorporated into the first-year student-athlete experience might be (a) a service-learning or community service encounter; (b) values clarification activities; (c) life skills programming related to transition issues such as taking your first midterm exam and how to deal with being homesick; (d) individual and/or course group tutoring; (e) study sessions; and (f) possible skill development in reading, writing, and mathematics.

Academic and Career Advising

A final component of the student services program is that of academic advising and career counseling. Regular academic meetings with both the academic adviser and/or athletics counselor are highly recommended. Depending upon the background and needs of each student,

a minimum of three or four meetings during the first semester is suggested. These advisers can help students deal with the individual and personal issues that come up for them during this time, monitor academic progress throughout the semester, and begin inquiries concerning potential career ideas.

Several other models for student services programming are available, including a model developed by Denson (1996). Regardless of which model is used, the key components should be as follows:

- The program is based upon a sound philosophy of student development.
- The program is inclusive with regard to all aspects of a diverse student population.
- The program has as one of its goals the integration of its student population into the mainstream college environment.
- The program should incorporate regular self-evaluation as well as evaluation of student outcomes with regard to success and satisfaction.

Conclusion

The focus of this chapter has been on understanding the characteristics, issues, and concerns of today's first-year collegiate women and, more specifically, women athletes. By including the theoretical and practical ideas herein, professionals working with this student population can be assured that they will be assisting these young women to have a quality collegiate experience, one in which they successfully develop their mental, social, emotional, physical, and spiritual selves in preparation for the challenges that await them in the world of tomorrow. For as Chickering (1969) and others have so well indicated, the development of individuals is a path of infinite complexity and one that is lifelong in scope. Helping young adults learn how to handle with more maturity all of the twists and turns that they may encounter during life is certainly one of the goals of a college education. Helping young women who have tremendous talent and potential as athletes to transfer those abilities to other aspects of their lives as they move through and prepare for life beyond college athletics is an equally important goal for collegiate coaches, faculty, student services personnel, and parents alike.

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CHAPTER 11

RACE AND COLLEGE SPORTS: A LONG WAY TO GO*

Richard E. Lapchick

As America confronts yet another racial crisis in the 1990s, the expectation remains that sports, nearly 45 years after Jackie Robinson broke baseball's color barrier, can lead the way. College sports, in particular, has been portrayed as a beacon for democracy and equal opportunity.

This perception is taking place at a time when 75% of high school students indicated to public opinion analyst Lou Harris that they had seen or heard a racial act with violent overtones either very often or somewhat often in the previous 12 months. In all, 54% of Black high school students reported that they had been a victim of a racial incident (Louis Harris & Associates, Inc., 1993).

One in three students said that they would openly join in a confrontation against another racial or religious group if they agreed with the instigators. Another 17%, although they would not join, said they would feel that the victims deserved what they got (Louis Harris & Associates, Inc., 1990).

According to Harris (1990), the nation's leading opinion analyst, too many of our children have learned how to hate. He concluded that

> America faces a critical situation. Our findings show that racial and religious harassment and violence are now commonplace among our young people rather than the exception. Far from being concentrated in any one area, confrontations occur in every region of the country and in all types of communities. (Louis Harris & Associates, Inc., 1990, p. 2).

One of the most hallowed assumptions about race and sports is that athletic contact between Blacks and Whites will favorably change racial perceptions. However, for this change to take place, coaches must be committed to helping guide players' social relations. The *Racism and Violence in American High Schools* (Louis Harris & Associates, Inc.,

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1993) survey conducted by Louis Harris for Northeastern University in 1993 showed that 70% of high school students reported that they had become friends with someone from a different racial or ethnic group through playing sports. Among Blacks, a 77% majority reported this result; the comparable majority was 68% among Whites and 79% among Hispanics. That, indeed, was encouraging news.

Black Student-Athletes on Predominantly White Campuses

However, on predominantly White campuses, as in corporate boardrooms, the atmosphere naturally reflects the dominant White culture. Most campuses are not equal meeting grounds for White and Black students, whether from urban or rural America.

American public opinion of college sports reached its nadir in the mid-1980s. In an attempt to create meaningful reform, many measures were passed. Among them were Propositions 48, 42, and 16. The wide-ranging debate and protest against Proposition 42 placed the issue of race among the central ethical issues in college sports in the 1990s. Proposition 42 would have prevented athletes who did not achieve certain academic standards from receiving a scholarship. The new debate over Proposition 16 in 1994-1995 has again raised the racial specter in college sports to a new level.

The American Institutes for Research (AIR) produced a study for the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) in 1989 suggesting that there are low academic expectations for Black athletes. Only 31% of the Black athletes surveyed for the AIR study indicated that their coaches encouraged good grades. The study also suggested that Black student-athletes are not receiving the education promised by colleges in that they graduate at a significantly lower rate than do Whites. They have few Black coaches or faculty members on campus to model themselves after (American Institutes for Research, 1989). All of this is drawing public attention and pressure. The Reverend Jesse Jackson founded the Rainbow Commission for Fairness in Athletics to change such imbalances.

Although less than six percent of all students at Division I-A institutions are Black, 60% of the men's basketball players, 37% of the women's basketball players, and 42% of the football players at those schools are Black (National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1994a).

All colleges and universities have some form of "special admittance" program in which a designated percentage of students who do not meet the normal admission standards of the school are allowed to enroll. According to the NCAA, about three percent of all students enter as "special admits." Yet more than 20% of football and basketball players enter under such programs. Thus, many enter with the academic odds already stacked against them.

The 1989 NCAA AIR study presented a wealth of data. Those familiar with college athletics were not surprised by the study's findings, which indicated that Black athletes feel racially isolated on college campuses, are overrepresented in football and basketball, have high expectations of pro careers, and are involved in other extracurricular activities. However, the results of the NCAA study stood in stark contrast to the findings published by the Women's Sports Foundation (1989). It was the first major study of minorities playing high school sports. It clearly established that in comparison to Black nonathletes, Black high school student-athletes feel better about themselves, are more involved in extracurricular activities other than sports, are more involved in the broader community, aspire to be community leaders, and have better grade point averages and standardized test scores. Almost all those results contradict the view that most of White society has about the Black athlete.

According to Lou Harris and Associates, Inc., (1993), it is apparent that most varsity athletes believe that their participation in high school team sports has helped them to become better students and citizens and to avoid drugs:

> It is especially significant to note that the value of playing sports in all these areas was significantly higher for African-American student-athletes in particular and for football and basketball players in

general. It merits considerable attention by colleges and universities where the experience of African-American student-athletes as well as their football and basketball players is significantly different and appears much more negative.[1]

The primary question that now must be asked is what happens to Black athletes, and Black students in general, between high school and college that seems to totally change how they perceive themselves. Among other things, many Black students leave a high school that is either overwhelmingly Black or at least partially integrated. If students are from an urban area, they leave behind a core of Black teachers and coaches. If students live on campus or go to school away from home, they leave behind whatever possible support network existed in the community in which they were raised and possible Black role models who are not exclusively athletes.

Students arrive at college to discover that the proportion of Black students at Division I-A schools is approximately six percent. Furthermore, less than two percent of the faculty positions at colleges and universities are held by Blacks. Finally, the athletic departments hire just a few more Blacks than the number of Blacks on the faculty and actually hire fewer Blacks than do professional sports teams.

A great deal of emphasis has been placed on racial discrimination in professional sports, especially in the hiring practices of professional franchises. In fact, a great deal of the research done at the Center for the Study of Sport in Society is devoted to the publication of the annual *Racial Report Card*. However, a look at the number of available employment positions in our colleges and universities indicates that it is less likely for Blacks to be hired in higher education that in professional sports.

Although the militancy and struggle of the 1960s and 1970s have reduced the negative self-perceptions of most young Blacks, the stereotypes—and all the taboos that go with them—still exist for many Whites. White and Black athletes can meet on campus carrying a great deal of racial baggage. Their prejudices won't automatically evaporate with the sweat as they play together on a team. The key to racial harmony on a team is the attitude and leadership of the coach.

He or she must be committed to equality and clearly demonstrate this to the team. The history of young athletes, and students in general, makes it an uphill task. Chances are that competition at the high school level bred some animosity; usually, White teams play against Black teams, reflecting urban residential housing patterns. There is virtually no playground competition between Blacks and Whites because few dare to leave their neighborhoods.

On a college team, Blacks and Whites compete for playing time, while in the society at large, Black and White workers compete for jobs, public housing, and even welfare. A primary difference is that Whites are apt to accept Blacks on the team because they will help the team win more games and perhaps get the White athletes more exposure.

It is easy for White athletes, no matter what their racial attitudes, to accept Blacks on their teams for two other reasons. First, they need not have any social contact with Black teammates. Sports that Blacks dominate are not sports like golf, tennis, and swimming where socializing is almost a requirement for competition. Players need not mingle after basketball, baseball, or football. More important, Black male players need not mingle with White women after those games. Housing on campus, and social discrimination through fraternities and sororities, further isolates Black athletes. Whether in high school or college, the Black student-athlete faces special problems as an athlete, a student, and a member of the campus community.

Most of White society believed we were on the road to progress until Al Campanis and Jimmy "the Greek" Snyder made us challenge our perceptions. Their statements on national television that Blacks and Whites are physically and mentally different were repugnant to much of the country and led to widespread self-examination. Like many Whites who accept Black dominance in sports, Campanis believed that Blacks

had less intellectual capacity. It makes things seem simple to people like Campanis: Blacks sure can play, but they can't organize or manage affairs or lead Whites. Marge Schott, speaking in private, reopened the wounds in 1992 when her remarks about Blacks and Jews again stunned the world of sports.

Many people wouldn't see much to contradict this view if they looked to society at large. In 1995, White men and women were twice as likely as Black men to hold executive, administrative, and managerial positions. At the same time, Blacks were twice as likely as Whites to hold positions of manual labor. Decades of viewing this pattern could easily reinforce the Campanis viewpoint: Whites are intelligent and Blacks are physically powerful.

After 50 years of trying to determine the genetic superiority of Blacks as athletes, science has proved little. Culture, class, and environment still tell us the most. Instead of developing theories about why Black Americans excel in sports, perhaps more time will now be spent on the achievement of Black Americans in human rights, medicine, law, science, the arts, and education, who overcame the attitudes and institutions of Whites to excel in fields where brains dictate the champions.

Coaches: A Study in Black and White

The coach becomes the Black student-athlete's main contact, and the court frequently becomes the home where he or she is most comfortable. Nonetheless, some Black athletes feel that their White coaches discriminate against them and that their academic advisors give them different counseling. This may reflect a general distrust of Whites or a strong perception that racism is the cause of certain events. Even well-intentioned acts can be interpreted by Blacks as being racially motivated.

Over the years, Black student-athletes have made a series of similar complaints irrespective of their campus location: subtle racism evidenced in different treatment during recruitment, poor academic advice, harsh discipline, positional segregation on the playing field and social segregation off it, blame for situations for which they are not responsible. There are also complaints of overt racism: racial abuse, Blacks being benched in games more quickly than Whites, marginal Whites being kept on the bench while only Blacks who play are retained, summer jobs for Whites and good jobs for their wives.

To say that most or even many White coaches are racist is a great exaggeration. But most White coaches were raised with White values in a White culture. The norm for them is what is important for a White society.

Stereotypes of the Black Athlete

If White coaches accept stereotypical images of what Black society is and what kind of people it produces, they may believe that Blacks are less motivated, less disciplined, less intelligent (53% of all Whites believe Blacks are less intelligent), and more physically gifted. They may think that all Blacks are raised in a culture bombarded by drugs, violence, and sexuality and that they are more comfortable with other Blacks.

They might believe those characteristics are a product of society or simply that they are the way God chose to make them. They might recognize themselves as racist, disliking Blacks because of perceived negative traits. More than likely, however, they view themselves as coaches trying to help. In either case, if they act on these images, their Black players are victimized.

In one of the most important scandals of the 1980s, Memphis State, a 1985 NCAA Final Four participant, fell into disgrace. There were many allegations about the improprieties of the school and its coach, Dana Kirk.

One that could not be disputed was the fact that 12 years had gone by without Memphis State graduating a single Black basketball player. Like several other urban institutions, Memphis State built a winning program with the talents of fine Black athletes. The fact that none had graduated brought back memories of Texas Western's NCAA championship team, which failed to graduate a single starter, all of whom were Black. But this went on at Memphis State for more than a decade. The

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) sued the school. Publicity finally led to the dismissal of Kirk. Indications are that Larry Finch, who replaced Kirk, has run a clean program. Perhaps the fact that Finch is Black has resulted in a different approach to Black players. In 1995, Memphis had one of the nation's most open-minded and progressive presidents in Lane Rawlings.

I do not mean to single out Memphis State. In the ten years since Dana Kirk was fired, I have been on more than 75 campuses. The pattern is frequently similar: The academic profile of Black football and basketball players and their treatment as students is different from Whites, and their graduation rate is lower.

Positional Segregation in College

The issue of positional segregation in college is becoming less of a factor. For years, Whites played the "thinking positions." The controlling position in baseball is the pitcher; in football, it is the quarterback. Everyone loves the smooth ballhandling guard in basketball. These are the glamour positions that fans and the press focus on. These have largely been White positions. College baseball still poses the greatest problem at all positions, as fewer and fewer Blacks play college baseball. Less than three percent of Division I-A college baseball players are Black (personal interview with Stanley Johnson of the NCAA, January 31, 1993).

However, in a major shift in college football, large numbers of Black quarterbacks have been leading their teams since the late 1980s. Between 1960 and 1986, only seven Black quarterbacks were among the top ten candidates for the Heisman Trophy, and none finished higher than fourth. In 1987, 1988, and 1989, Black quarterbacks Don McPherson (Syracuse), Rodney Peete (University of Southern California), Darien Hagan (Colorado), Reggie Slack (Auburn), Tony Rice (Notre Dame), Stevie Thompson (Oklahoma), and Major Harris (West Virginia) all finished among the top ten vote getters. In 1989, Andre Ware became the first Black quarterback to win the award. Florida State's Charlie Ward won it in 1993. In 1994, Nebraska won the national championship with a dramatic Orange Bowl victory behind the leadership of quarterback Tommie Frazier. Coach Osborne inserted Frazier into the starting lineup after Frazier missed nearly the entire season with a blood clot.

In basketball, more top point guards coming out of college are Black. Recent stars such as Kenny Anderson, Tim Hardaway, Anfernee Hardaway, and Jason Kidd are just a few of the more prominent Black point guards. Perhaps this bodes well for an end to positional segregation in college sports in the near future.

Can Black Athletes Speak Out?

The coach is the authority. Historically, athletes have rarely spoken out. This creates problems for all coaches who come up against an outspoken player. When the player is Black and not a superstar, that player will often be let go. Only the superstars such as Bill Russell, Kareem Abdul-Jabbar, and Muhammad Ali can securely remain because no one can afford to let them go. But even the greatest ones paid heavy prices for many years after their outspokenness.

Muhammad Ali, who refused to go into the army, knew that you had to be at the top to speak out if you were Black. Ultimately, Ali had the money and influence to go all the way to the Supreme Court. Most Blacks have neither the money nor the influence to make the system work.

In 1992, Craig Hodges spoke out about the Rodney King case in Los Angeles. Hodges was a great shooter but was a peripheral player on the National Basketball Association (NBA) championship team, the Chicago Bulls. He had won the three-point contest at the NBA All-Star Game. After his remarks, he was cut by the Bulls and not one team picked him up.

Tommy Harper's case is also instructive. His contract was not renewed by the Boston Red Sox in December of 1985. The Red Sox said he was let go because he was not doing a good job as special assistant to the general manager. Harper, however, charged that he was fired because he spoke out against racial practices by

the Red Sox. Earlier in 1985, he said that the Sox allowed White players to receive passes to the Whites-only Elks Club in Winter Haven, Florida, where they held spring training. (The Sox later stopped the tradition.) Harper sued and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission ruled that the firing was a retaliatory action against Harper because he spoke out against discrimination. It took him a while to get back into basketball. As of this writing, he is a coach for the Montreal Expos.

There are positive examples as well. It did not go unnoticed that a group of Black athletes at Auburn asked the president of the university to get a Confederate flag removed from a dormitory; it was removed. In 1987, the Pittsburgh basketball team wore ribbons as a protest against the school's investments in South Africa. In 1990, Black athletes at the University of Texas at Austin led a protest against racism on campus. They had even been encouraged by members of the athletic department. Whether or not this will become a trend is hard to see, but the positive and widespread media coverage of their actions stood in dramatic contrast to early reactions to Russell, Ali, and Abdul-Jabbar.

In 1969, 14 Black players on the University of Wyoming football team informed their athletic department of their intention to wear black armbands during their upcoming game against Brigham Young University. The players' intent was to bring attention to the doctrinal position of the Church of Latter Day Saints that prevented Blacks from holding the priesthood. After hearing of the players' plan, Wyoming's head football coach cited a long-standing team policy that prevented players from engaging in protests of any kind. When the players showed up at his office wearing the armbands just one day before the game, the coach interpreted their action as in defiance of the rule and a direct threat to his authority. He summarily dismissed all 14 players from the football team.

Although this incident remained a sore spot in the history of Wyoming athletics for nearly 24 years, the university held ceremonies to honor the players on September 24, 1993. The event was the result of the African American Studies Department working in conjunction with the school's administration to recognize the former players, signaling a new era in communication between student-athletes and the administration.

Interracial Dating and Sexual Stereotypes

The image of the Black male involved with sex and violence took a profound turn in 1994 after O. J. Simpson was charged with a brutal double murder. Looking beyond the horror of the murders, the case once again brought out the fact that interracial dating is still a volatile issue in the 1990s. There is no question that it is far more common in the mid-1990s than it was in 1970 or even 1980 when Howie Evans, then a Black assistant coach at Fordham and a columnist for the *Amsterdam News*, told me of when he used to work at a Black community center in New York. Recruiters from predominantly White southern schools would come to recruit Black women for their schools. Those coaches seemed to think that they understood the powerful sexual drives of Black men, so they went out to get some "safe" women friends from the North.

When I talk to Black athletes after a lecture, I try to ask them about this. It doesn't matter where I am—Los Angeles, Denver, New York, Nashville, or Norfolk—almost everyone says there is pressure, now usually very subtle, not to date White women. It doesn't matter how big the star is.

Black athletes also tell me that the assumption on campus is that they want White women more than Black women. Not that Blacks say they do but that Whites believe they do. If a White student wants to sleep with a coed, that's part of college life in our times. If a Black student wants to do the same, that's the primal animal working out his natural instincts. Stereotypes of blacks in the media are, of course, perpetuated by the virtually all-White sports media.

The Options for Black Athletes Choosing a College

The effects of the actions of White coaches who act on stereotypical images of Black athletes are not dissimilar. Study after study has shown the devastating consequences to a person's psyche. As long as the act is perceived as being racially

motivated—even if it is a well-intentioned act—the end result is the same.

Black student-athletes with professional aspirations seem to have three choices, none of which are equal. They can choose to attend a historically Black college, a predominantly White school with a Black head coach, or a predominantly White school with a White head coach.

So what should Black athletes do? Should they attend a historically Black college? After all, Black colleges have turned out great pro athletes for years. But Black college athletic programs started to decline when the White schools began to integrate. They don't have million-dollar booster clubs to compete with White schools to get star Black athletes. Division I-A schools also offer the lure of bowl games, television coverage, and a "good education."

NBA Players Association Director Charles Grantham told me that the Black athlete who wants to turn pro has little realistic choice. "Exposure on TV means the scouts will see you and, if they like you, a higher position in the draft. That means more money, much more money" (personal communication, September 1993).

The Southwestern Athletic Conference, which included Grambling, Jackson State, and Southern, used to provide 35 to 40 players a year to the National Football League (NFL) in the early 1970s. By the 1990s, the numbers were between six and ten in a big year.

Grambling's Eddie Robinson is the winningest coach in college history and has sent more players to the NFL than any coach. Could Eddie Robinson coach at Michigan or in the NFL? He has never had the opportunity to turn down a Division I-A job. Eddie Robinson is Black; he became a coach before White institutions were ready for him.

Playing for a Black coach at a predominantly White institution is another option for the Black student-athlete. Many of today's Black players would like to attend schools that have Black coaches. For Division I basketball players, that amounts to 45 schools, excluding the 16 historically Black institutions (personal interview with Deb Kruger of the Black Coaches Association, January 15, 1995). The NCAA has 302 Division I schools with approximately 13 players per basketball team. Therefore, of the 3,926 slots for men's basketball players, approximately 793 fall under Black basketball coaches.[2] The slots are far fewer in college football where there were only five Black head coaches at the Division I level at the close of the 1994 season. Finally, in Division I college baseball, there is not a single Black manager (personal interview with the Black Coaches Association, February 1995). (See Table 1 for a breakdown of the percentages of black employees in NCAA member institutions.)

The NCAA's 1994 Men's Final Four featured four teams with a total of 54 players; 29 were Black (54%), 24 were White (44%), and one was Hispanic. On the other hand, alongside the court there were 39 coaches; 85% were White. There was not a single person of color on any of the four teams' medical staffs. The 15 athletic directors and associate athletic directors were all

Table 1
Percentage of Black Employees in NCAA Member Institutions

Athletic administration	6.2
Athletic directors	3.6
Associate athletic directors	4.5
Assistant athletic directors	4.9
Head coaches	3.9
Revenue-sports head coaches	12.9
Assistant head coaches	9.8

Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association (1994b).

White. Of the 54 basketball administrators, only five were Black (nine percent). Of the 186 basketball support staff positions, Whites occupied 174 (94%). Even the media covering the game were overwhelmingly White. Twelve of the 13 local radio and television broadcasters were White as well as 145 of the 150 local newspaper reporters.[3]

The 1995 National Championship game in football, played at the Orange Bowl, was no different. Table 2 demonstrates the combined racial breakdown of the University of Nebraska and University of Miami football programs. Although nearly 63% of the players were Black, 100% of the presidents, athletic directors, head coaches, associate directors, sports information directors, and medical staff were White.

There are many potential jobs available for Blacks in coaching and in athletic departments. There are 906 NCAA members in all divisions, with an average of 15.8 teams per school (personal interview with NCAA spokesperson, Phyllis Ton, January 25, 1995). That amounts to 14,315 teams. The National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) has 391 members with an average of 9.5 teams per school. That's another 3,715 teams. With an average of 2.5 coaches per team, college sports has approximately 45,075 coaching jobs. That excludes junior and community colleges.

When so very few coaching positions are held by Black Americans, there should be little wonder that Black student-athletes feel isolated on campus. Pressure needs to be placed here to change these percentages. The coaches are available. According to the Black Coaches Association, it has 3,000 members. If there is to be a more promising future for the Black student-athlete, then more Black coaches and assistants will have to be hired.

How do present-day black coaches fare? In 1985, Nolan Richardson was hired by Arkansas and became the Southwest Conference's first Black head basketball coach. When his first two teams lost 30 games, Arkansas newspapers wrote him off. When he led the team to the Final Four in 1990, Richardson was elevated to sainthood in the Arkansas media. When Arkansas won the 1994 National Championship, Richardson was clearly a star in the state. People were saying that his presence, and especially his success, was leading to improved race relations in northern Arkansas.

Georgetown's John Thompson made many people angry when he became the first Black coach to win the national championship in 1984. This was especially true of some media figures who said he was arrogant and abrasive and kept his team insulated from the public. They said his team was overly aggressive. The

Table 2
1995 College Football National Championships: Racial Breakdown of Participants

	White	Black	Latino	Total
Presidents/Chancellors[a]	3 (100%)	0	0	3
Athletic directors	2 (100%)	0	0	2
Head coaches	2 (100%)	0	0	2
Associate athletic director	5 (100%)	0	0	5
Assistant athletic director	5 (71%)	2 (29%)	0	7
Players	49 (36%)	85 (62.5%)	2 (1.5%)	136
Sports information director	2 (100%)	0	0	2
Assistant coaches	29 (78%)	7 (19%)	1 (3%)	37
Medical staff	18 (100%)	0	0	18
Nonplaying staff	167 (89%)	16 (8.5%)	5 (2.5%)	188

Source: Rainbow Commission for Fairness in Athletics, January 1995[4]
[a]The University of Nebraska has both a president and a chancellor.

intensity of the attack varied but was prolonged over a decade. His personal leadership as the outspoken elder statesman of America's Black coaches has enhanced his status in the Black community and alienated many in the White community.

Thompson was breaking all the molds shaped by a stereotyping public. First, he was a big winner with a lot of Black recruits coming to an increasingly multicultural campus. Second, these Black players were not a freewheeling, footloose team but, rather, one of the more disciplined teams in the country. Even more important, at a time of great negative publicity concerning the academic abuse of college athletes, Thompson's players had one of the highest graduation rates in America. Was there some jealousy involved in the attacks? Didn't these same writers call aggressive White teams "hustling teams?" White coaches like John Wooden were called fatherly figures when they kept the press at arm's length from their teams.

Even if you accept the fact that Thompson's style was a tough one for the public to grapple with, this still doesn't explain the degree of the attacks against him. The racial issue seemed, once again, to be a factor. Although several national writers write balanced pieces on John Thompson and Georgetown, too many others clearly show us how far we have to go.

For now, most Black athletes will have to play for White coaches, and many may have the problems mentioned. Academically, Black athletes may enter college at a disadvantage, one artificially maintained because they might be steered into easier courses. They are less likely to get a degree. With prevailing stereotypes, some coaches will make assumptions about them they would never make about Whites. Socially, they will be in an alien world, segregated in student housing, off-campus housing, and on road trips. Increasingly, they will be forced to withdraw into the safer athletic subculture, becoming isolated from both Black and White nonathletes.

The odds are surely not in favor of Black student-athletes. If, after enduring all those problems, they don't get a degree, then why do they subject themselves to all of this in the first place? The answer is simple. They assume that sports is their way out of poverty. How prevalent is this belief? The NCAA AIR study on the Black college athlete showed that in 1989, approximately 45% of Black basketball and football players at predominantly White schools think they will make the pros (AIR, 1989). Less than one percent will. The Northeastern University study conducted by Lou Harris in 1993 showed that 51% of Black high school student-athletes think they can make the pros.

Sport has been promoted as the hope of Black people. But too often that hope is empty. If Black athletes do not emphasize their studies, they will slip farther and farther toward the bottomless pit of functional illiteracy. Black athletes become involved in a cycle that trades away their education for the promise of stardom, a promise that is very unlikely to ever be real. A Black high school student has a better chance of becoming a doctor or an attorney than becoming a professional athlete. But those civic role models are not as visible as Black athletes. For Black high school students, the professional athlete seems like the best model.

Unfortunately, some schools "pass" certain student-athletes to the next level without regard to academic achievement. They are conditioned to believe that academic work is not as necessary as working on their bodies. The promise of the pros is the shared dream, no matter how unrealistic.

The media is now reporting more on the problems. The NCAA has paid far greater attention to the racial issue in college sports. In the last ten years, things have gotten markedly better for Black student-athletes. Their graduation rates have improved by more than ten percent. The number of Black coaches has increased. Public pressures for change, especially that coming from the Rainbow Commission for Fairness in Athletics founded by the Reverend Jesse Jackson, has finally been sustained over time.

Nonetheless, college sports has a long way to go before it fulfills its promise as a beacon of democracy and equal opportunity.

Notes

[1]Quotation taken from unpublished data from the 1993 Lou Harris survey. Available from the Center for the Study of Sport in Society, 360 Huntington Ave., 161 CP, Boston, MA 02115.

[2]This number is an estimate arrived at by multiplying the number of Division I schools by the number of roster spots on a basketball team, then dividing the sum by the number of schools with Black coaches.

[3]See the April 1994 press release from the Rainbow Commission for Fairness in Athletics. Available from the National Rainbow Coalition, P. O. Box 27385, Washington, DC 20005.

[4]Data for Table 2 available from the National Rainbow Coalition, P. O. Box 27385, Washington, DC 20005.

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